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THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

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THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

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W. W. HUNTER, C.I.E., LL.D.,
DIRECTOR-GENERAL OF STATISTICS TO THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

VOLUME IX.

TAPTI—ZUT-THUT

AND INDEX.

TRÜBNER & CO., LONDON, 1881.

POSTSCRIPT.

I FEEL that I should not allow this work to pass from my hands without referring to the labours of my predecessor at the beginning of this century, Francis Buchanan-Hamilton. The Imperial Gazetteer is, as stated in the Preface, based upon my Statistical Survey of India. In the twenty volumes of the Survey which deal with Bengal, I frequently had occasion to make use of Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton's manuscripts. Those manuscripts form a collection of thirty thick folios, now replaced in the India Office, London. The smaller scale upon which the Imperial Gazetteer is constructed, has precluded a suitable acknowledgment of my obligation to these and other series of manuscripts, especially those of Orme and Sykes, now reposing in the same library. Buchanan-Hamilton, however, was by far the greatest man who, during the first century of our Indian rule, devoted himself to the study of the country and the people. My debt to his unpublished folios is of a different character from that which I owe to any other investigator, and it deserves special mention here.

Manuscript sources of the Imperial Gazetteer.

Francis Buchanan was born in 1762, a younger son of an ancient Scottish family, the Buchanans of Leny. He took his degree as a Doctor of Medicine at the University of Edinburgh in 1783, and went out to India in the service of the East India Company in 1794. He returned thence in 1816, and succeeded, on the death of his elder brother in the following year, to the Buchanan

Buchanan-Hamilton, 1762-1829.

estates of Leny and Spittal, together with the property of his mother, who represented the Hamiltons of Bardowie. In consequence of the latter inheritance, he took the name of Buchanan-Hamilton, and as his works have been placed before the world under both cognomens, some obscurity has resulted. In 1828, he was, after a formal procedure, declared the Chief of the Clan Buchanan. He died at his house of Leny in 1829, at the age of 67.

His work in India, 1794-1815. Buchanan-Hamilton was a rural investigator and a man of science. During his Indian career, he served for some time on the personal staff of the Marquis of Wellesley, the Governor-General. Under Buchanan-Hamilton's promptings, an establishment was formed within the precincts of the Governor-General's park at Barrackpore, for investigating the natural history of India. But his chief work was the Statistical Survey of Bengal, ordered by the Court of Directors in 1807, and prosecuted by Buchanan-Hamilton with admirable zeal and ability during the next six years. Before his appointment to this great task, he had made a tour of investigation through Mysore and Southern India. Indeed it was that work, conducted under the auspices of the Marquis of Wellesley, which led to his being entrusted, by the Earl of Minto, with the Statistical Survey of Bengal.

Lord Wellesley's estimate of his services. Buchanan-Hamilton was brought into very close relations with the Governor-General, and after his retirement from India, the Marquis of Wellesley addressed to him in 1817 a letter in the following words:—'No part of my Government in India affords me more matter of satisfactory reflection than the opportunities of which I availed myself to render your talents and knowledge useful to the world. In discharging this public duty, the intimate acquaintance and friendship which was established between us enabled me to appreciate the

integrity, independence, and frankness of your character, and the manly spirit of truth and honour which animated your intercourse with all persons in power.' The Marquis of Wellesley, when appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, asked Buchanan-Hamilton to accompany him in an official capacity; an offer which Buchanan-Hamilton's new duties, as a country gentleman and the Head of his Clan, prevented him from accepting.

His Statistical Survey of Bengal.

Buchanan-Hamilton brought industry and enthusiasm to his Statistical Survey of Bengal. But the first essential for the successful completion of such a work is to organize it on a basis that will render it independent of the life or death of the projector, and of those rapid changes in the views and *personnel* of the Government, which have to be reckoned with in any protracted enterprise in India. Buchanan-Hamilton's survey of Bengal was not laid out on a solid foundation of this sort. Its execution depended too much on his own health, and on the sympathy of the Governor-General under whom it was inaugurated. It was never completed. After seven years, during which £30,000 are said to have been expended, only a fragment of a single Province had been surveyed, not one page had been printed, and the work came to an end. It suffices here to say, that this result was not due to any remissness on Buchanan-Hamilton's part. The records of his survey, consisting of his own investigations into the condition of the country, aggregate ten thousand folio pages. A quarter of a century afterwards, a compiler found the dust-coated manuscripts in the India House, and abstracted three volumes from them in 1838. This person placed his own name on the title-page, and seems to have been quite ignorant of India. The Buchanan-Hamilton folios then resumed their slumbers for another thirty-four years, until made over to me in 1872.

Its failure.

The information which Buchanan-Hamilton collected

Buchanan-Hamilton's works. by personal inquiry into the state of the country enabled him to render many unconspicuous services to the Government. Draft reports in his handwriting show that he was the unacknowledged adviser of the Governor-General, as to the conduct of projected campaigns, the annexation of territories, and other matters of political importance. He knew more about India than any European of his time; and he stated his views without considering whether they would be pleasing or displeasing to those who asked his opinion. His published works were—(1) *A Journey through Mysore, Canara, and Malabar*, 3 vols. 4to, 1807; (2) *An Account of the Kingdom of Nepal*, 1 vol. 4to, 1819; (3) *Genealogical Tables of the Hindus, extracted from the Sacred Writings of the People*, large folio, 1819; (4) *An Account of the Fishes of the Ganges*, with plates, 2 vols. 4to, 1822. The three volumes abstracted from his Statistical Survey of Bengal were published under the title of *Eastern India*, but without his name on the title-page, in 1838. His contributions to the learned journals of his day were both numerous and valuable.

Buchanan-Hamilton was the pioneer of science in Bengal. His work on the fishes of the Ganges still holds rank as an original authority in its own department. On leaving India, his botanical drawings passed to the Government. The collections of Indian coins, drugs, and manuscripts, which he had made during his journeys, were presented by himself to the Court of Directors.

Revision of articles on Native States. In the preface to the first volume, I mentioned that the Feudatory States had been placed outside the scope of my survey of British India. During the conduct of the operations, it became my duty to urge upon the Government, the inadequacy of the materials available for the Native Territories. An officer was in consequence

deputed to assist me in the Foreign Office, Calcutta, and afterwards in the Political Department of the India Office, London. I desire to express my thanks to this gentleman, Mr. Roper-Lethbridge, C.I.E., M.A., late of Exeter College, Oxford. The acknowledgment is more suitably made here than in the preface to the first volume, as Mr. Roper-Lethbridge has rendered special aid in the latter portion of the Imperial Gazetteer. I have also to thank Mr. G. W. W. Barclay, M.A., for continuous assistance of a less distinctive but very valuable character. Finally, I wish to record my obligations to my niece, Miss Margaret Robertson, for the index which concludes this work. That index might well form a volume by itself; and I think those who consult it will find that it represents a sustained effort of industry, ingenuity, and thoroughness in detail. It brings to a point, and renders available at a glance, the stores of information which have been gathered by many hands in the 240 Districts of India during the past twelve years. Its plan and general outline were necessarily my own; but to Miss Robertson chiefly belongs the merit of its execution.

The Index.

W. W. H.

July 1, 1881.

ERRATA ET CORRIGENDA.

IN a work like the foregoing, compiled from local materials of varying value, collected throughout the 240 Districts of India, discrepancies and inaccuracies are unavoidable. I have done my best to render them as few as possible. On reading over the earlier volumes since they issued from the press, I have noticed the following. But I fear that they do not exhaust the list of such blemishes, and I shall be grateful for any corrections which may be sent to me, care of the India Office, London.

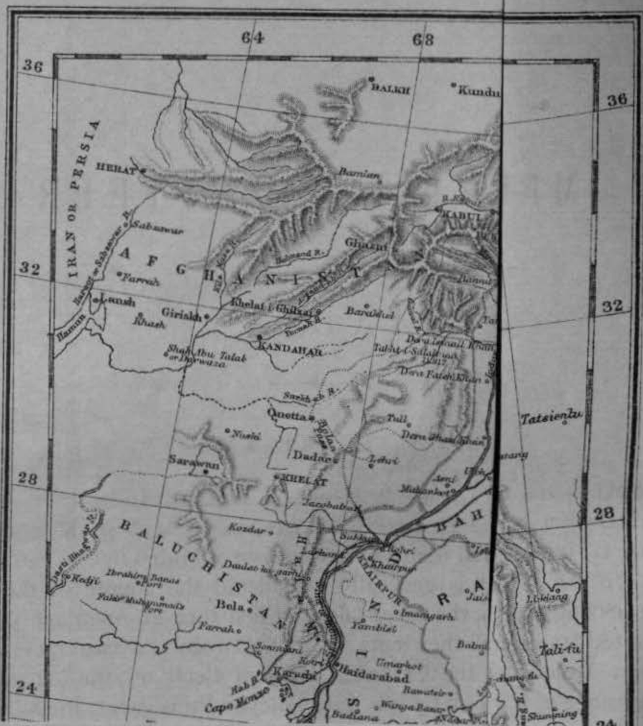
W. W. H.

VOL. I. p. 122, line 14.—For 'about Rs. 5 a month' read 'as high as Rs. 5 a week in the shipping season.'
p. 189, line 17.—For '4517 feet' read '4663 feet.'
p. 231, line 18.—For '**Armeghon**' read 'Armagon.'
p. 344, line 4.—For '**Kyberi**' read 'Kyheri.'
p. 347, line 21.—For 'twelve years' read 'seventeen years.'
p. 348, line 22.—Insert the word 'again' before 'permanently.'
p. 479, line 43.—For '**Toma**' read 'Yoma.'

VOL. II. p. 171, line 18.—For '8500' feet read '5800 feet.'
p. 220, line 29.—For 'lat. 27° 70′ N.' read 'lat. 27° 20′ N.'
p. 400, line 36.—For 'lat. 18° 4′ 25″ N.' read 'lat. 18° 2′ 30″ N.'
p. 419, line 39.—Article **Cherra Poonjee.** Later returns give the rainfall at 523 inches.
pp. 426, 427.—Delete latitude and longitude.

VOL. III. p. 90, line 8.—For '1726' read '1736.'
p. 96, line 37.—For 'lat. 24° 29′ 34″ N., long. 86° 44′ 35″ E.,' substitute 'lat. 24° 14′ 3″ N., long. 86° 52′ 51″ E.'

VOL. IV. p. 265, footnote 1.—For 'signal' read 'final.'
p. 291, line 9.—For 'converts' read 'convents.'
p. 305, line 35.—For 'oviary' read 'ovarian.'
p. 320, line 24.—For 'throne' read 'line.'
p. 336, line 11.—For 'frequenty' read 'frequently.'
p. 338, line 1.—For 'India' read 'Indian.'
p. 367, line 23.—For '1717' read '1817.'
p. 369.—First side heading. For '1875' read '1857.'
p. 398, line 10.—For '1872' read '1782.'
p. 431, line 21.—For 'route' read 'rout.'
p. 546, line 11.—For 'have' read 'has.'



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IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

OF

INDIA.

VOLUME IX.

Tápti.—One of the great rivers of Western India. It rises in Betúl District of the Central Provinces, in lat. 21° 48′ N., and long. 78° 15′ E.; but a sacred reservoir in the town of Multái (lat. 21° 46′ 26″ N., long. 78° 18′ 5″ E.) is generally considered the source of the river. After leaving Multái, the stream flows at first through open and partially cultivated lands, and then cuts its way between the two spurs of the Sátpura Mountains, the Chikalda Hills of Berár on the left, and the wilder range of Kálibhit on the right. Beyond this gorge, the hills again retire. But for the first 150 miles of its course, spurs of the Sátpura range somewhat closely hem in the valley of the Tápti. Falling rapidly from the Sátpura uplands, through a deep-cut channel from 100 to 150 yards wide, the flood-waters of the river soon drain away, leaving in the dry season a stream which, passing over a rocky bed, can in many places be forded. The banks, though high, are not steep; and except where sharply cut by a turn in the river's course, they slope gradually to the level of the stream, and, like the country round, are overgrown with forest trees, brushwood, and grass, a shelter to wild animals of every kind.

During the next 180 miles, the Tápti passes through the upland plateau of Khándesh. At its eastern extremity, where it is separated by only a slight fall from the plain of Berar, the level of Khándesh is from 700 to 750 feet above the sea. From this point the plateau slopes towards the north-west, until it reaches the high lands that divide Khándesh from Surat. In its passage through Khándesh, the Tápti receives several tributaries. Of these the chief are, on the left bank, the Púrna, the Wághar, the Girna, the Bori, the Pánjhra, and the Siva. On the right bank, the neighbourhood of the Sátpura Hills prevents the formation of any large affluents. But from this side

come the Suki, the Aner, the Arunáwati, the Gomai, and the Wálha. For the first 160 miles of its course in Khándesh, the Tápti passes through a flat and well-cultivated country. During the last 20 miles, as it draws near the west of the District, hills on either side send down spurs close to its banks; the land, no longer tilled, is covered with thick forests; and the only signs of inhabitants are clusters of three or four Bhíl huts. At the same time the stream, forcing its way amid stones and boulders, quickens into rapids, or shoots over barriers of rock.

Here, at the narrow passage known as the Deer's Leap, or *Haranphál*, the descent from Khándesh to the plain of Guzerat begins. This section of the river's course, consisting partly of still, deep basins bordered by high cliffs, and partly of rapids formed by barriers of rock, extends through more than 50 miles of a wild, almost uninhabited country.

On leaving the Dáng forests, the Tápti enters on its last stage—the passage across the Surat plain to the sea. The direction is generally westerly, and the distance 50 miles in a direct line, or, including windings, 70 miles. These 70 miles of the Tápti's course are naturally divided into two parts—above and below the influence of the tidal wave. The upper or fresh-water section includes about 40 miles; and the lower or tidal section, little more than 30. Though they gradually merge into each other, the character of these two sections is in several respects distinct. In the upper part, the river passes through the less cultivated tracts in the east of the Surat plain; and it is only when the village of Wághecha is passed, 22 miles west of the point where it enters Surat District, that the last spur of the Rájpipla Hills is left behind.

During almost the whole of its course of 32 miles as a tidal river, the Tápti rolls through the rich, highly cultivated plain that forms the central part of the District of Surat. Only for a few miles before it falls into the sea are the lands through which it passes barren and liable to be submerged by the tide. Below Pálri, the course of the river stretches for about 8 miles towards the south-west; then near the village of Warácha, where the tides daily ebb and flow, it winds westwards for about 2 miles. Here, a little above the village of Amroli, the limit of ordinary navigation, it strikes for 3 miles sharply to the north-west, till, at Wariáv, the lowest ford on the river, it bends for 3 miles more to the south-west; then winding again to the south-east, it runs for 4 miles in a line almost parallel to its former course to the city of Surat, where it again strikes suddenly towards the south-west. So sharp is this curve in the river's course, that though by water Surat is more than 10 miles from Amroli, by land the distance is but little more than 2. Below Surat, the river stretches to the south-west, till,

about 4 miles from its mouth, it turns to the left, and, gradually widening, flows southwards into the sea. During this section of its course, the banks have little of the steep and rough character they bear higher up the stream. Within the limit of the tide, as the current becomes weaker, the land on either side of the river is less heaped up, till, about 7 miles of Pálri, so little is it raised above the level of the stream, that for about 2 miles between the villages of Warácha and Phulpára, in times of flood, the river, overtopping the left bank, and in a great body of water rushing westwards, has more than once flooded the city of Surat. Farther down the stream, at the more abrupt turnings, as on the right bank at Ránder, and at Surat about 2 miles farther down on the left bank, the outer edge is cut by the force of the current into a high steep cliff. But below Ránder, the right bank soon drops again, and continues low and shelving for 15 miles to the sea. So, too, within a few miles of Surat, the left bank, which for a mile or two was raised from 20 to 30 feet above the stream, has again sunk so low that at high tide the water, overlapping the bank, passes beyond, flooding a large extent of land.

Below the limit of the tide, the bed of the river is covered by a layer of mud. This deposit varies in depth from a few inches, where the tide runs strong, to as much as 4 feet in the still bends of the river. Opposite the city of Surat, at Umra, 2 miles, and at Magdala, 4 miles farther to the west, the sand washed down in times of flood has formed banks and shoals. Especially is this the case near the mouth of the river, where the antagonistic currents of the stream and tide have, across almost the entire breadth of the river, thrown up alternate layers of sand and clay.

In its passage through Surat District, the only important tributary received by the Tápti is the Wareli. This stream, rising in the western spurs of the Rájpipla Hills, flows towards the south-west across the Mándvi Subdivision, and, after a course of about 15 miles, joins the Tápti on its right bank at the village of Pipária, 40 miles from the sea.

At the Wághecha rapids, about 40 miles from its mouth, the trap rock *in situ* forms several islands in the bed of the Tápti. These islands, though occasionally liable to be flooded, are covered with trees, as well as with grass and bushes. Of the banks of sand and clay that rise above the ordinary level of the stream, the chief (generally spoken of simply as *bet*, or the island) lies in a bend of the right bank of the river about 5 miles below the city of Surat. Near the mouth of the river, inside of the bar, are also one or two flat wooded islands.

In Surat District, there are two important ferries across the Tápti. From the town of Mándvi, on the right bank of the river, about 60 miles from its mouth, a boat crosses to the villages on the southern bank. The other ferry plies between the city of Surat and the villages

on the northern bank. The Tápti can be forded at three places within Bombay territory. Of these, Karod is the highest up, about 56 miles from the sea; the next Bodhán, about 40; and Wariáv, about 20 miles from the mouth of the river.

The following details, showing the present (1876) state of the channel of the Tápti, as regards navigation, between the sea and the city of Surat, are quoted from the *Bombay Gazetteer*, vol. ii. pp. 12, 13:—'The anchorage ground for large ships in Surat roads has from 42 to 48 feet at low water. The Surat roadstead is a safe place of anchorage from October to the beginning of April; it is considered dangerous for ships of much draught after the middle of April. In that month, and in the early part of May, smart southerly winds frequently blow during the springs, particularly in the night with the flood-tide. On the bar, the range of the tide varies from 12 to 22 feet at neaps, to 27 feet at highest springs. The average rise of the tide at the bar is about 15 feet; but higher up, about 4 miles west of Surat, it is only about 10 feet. The entrance over the bar is continually changing, new channels being opened by the shifting of the sands, and old ones closed up. Formerly, the Dumas channel was the deepest, and was generally used by ships. The direction of this passage was along the east side of a sandbank towards the village of Dumas, on the left bank of the river. This channel is now almost filled up, and is only navigable at half-tide. The proper entrance can be pointed out only by a native pilot. Although the estuary is here not less than 4 miles across, the channel is narrow, and at low-water spring-tides, between the sands near the bar, there is not depth sufficient for a small boat. The distance of the bar from Surat town is about 12 miles in a straight line, or 15 miles by the river channel. For nearly two-thirds of this distance there is a continued chain of sandbanks, many of them dry at half-tide, with very small depths at low water in the channels between them. The two chief sandbanks are near Magdala, about 4 miles, and Umra, about 10 miles from the mouth of the river. Above Umra and near the city, the river is more contracted, with deeper water. Opposite the fort of Surat, there is at all times of the tide a depth of water of not less than 10 feet. Though boats sometimes pass up to Ránder, 3 miles, and to Amroli, 11 miles above Surat, that city is at present the ordinary limit of navigation. The shipping which now (1876) visit Surat are native craft of from 18 to 36 tons burthen, and light draught steamers, which ply from Surat to Gogo and Bhaunagar on the western shore of the Gulf of Cambay. These vessels only ply during the fair-weather season. In the months of June, July, and August, there is nothing but purely local traffic on the Tápti, and very little else in September. Unless when fortunate in wind and tide, sailing vessels of any size often take from two to three days to get up as far as Surat. The steamships,

varying from 100 to 200 tons burthen, and drawing from 5 to 6 feet, cannot pass up and down the river at less than half-tide.' The port of Swally (Suwáli), once famous in early European commerce with India, lay at the mouth of the river. It is now deserted.

Before the days of railways, it was at one time thought that the Tápti might be made the highway for the carriage of the produce of Khándesh and the Central Provinces to the sea. With this object, a survey of the Tápti was made in 1852. This survey extended over a distance of 232 miles, from the city of Surat to near the east of Khándesh, at the confluence of the Wághar. Beyond the eastern limit of Khándesh, during the first 150 miles of its course, the bed of the Tápti is too broken to permit of its navigation by boats. The only use which its waters serve for the purposes of trade is the floating down of timber in times of flood; and even then the channel is so rapid that the wood is said frequently to be sucked into secret currents and lost.

The total length of the course of the Tápti is, including windings, about 450 miles; it has a drainage area of about 30,000 square miles, and carries to the sea a volume of water estimated to vary from an hourly discharge of 120,000,000 cubic yards during seasons of extreme flood, to 25,000 cubic yards towards the close of the dry-weather months.

Though several projects have from time to time been framed with the object of utilising the waters of the Tápti for the purpose of irrigation, no lands are at present (1876) irrigated from this river. Except over a limited portion of the Sahyádri Hills, the tract of country drained by the Tápti is not subject to any great rainfall. The break of the rains in the first week in June is generally marked by a considerable increase in the strength of the stream, but a decided fresh is seldom seen till the first week of August. Floods bringing down water enough to fill the bed of the river up to the top of its banks are unusual, and even ordinary freshes last for but a short time. Occasionally, however, the floods are very severe; and from the sharp bend in the course of the river at Phulpára, 2 miles east of the city of Surat, the waters, rising at times above the level of the left bank, force their way across the land, and, deluging the city, have on more than one occasion caused much loss of life and property. Some particulars have been collected of thirteen floods, ranging over a term of about 150 years; and will be found in the *Bombay Gazetteer*, vol. ii. pp. 18 *et seq.* Of these floods, three occurred in the 18th century, in the years 1727, 1776, and 1782; and ten in the present century, in 1810, 1822, 1835, 1837, 1843, 1849, 1872, 1873, and two in 1876. In all these floods, the city of Surat suffered seriously; but up to 1869, nothing in the way of protective works had been undertaken. In that year, however, the Surat municipality determined to construct such protective works as should keep the waters of the river out of the most thickly peopled parts

of the city during all floods except those of extraordinary severity. A great part of the town has thus been saved from much inconvenience and injury.

Though it enjoys a less widespread reputation for sanctity than the Narbada, the Tápti receives much local respect. On its banks there are, according to the *purána*, or religious history of the river, no fewer than 108 spots, or *tirthas*, of special sanctity. Of these, the chief is Bodhán, about 15 miles east of Surat, where a religious gathering is held once in every twelve years. Ashvani Kumár and Gupteswar, about 2 miles up the river from Surat, are also held in esteem. Both spots are provided with temples, rest-houses, and flights of steps leading down to the water; and here, on several occasions in each year, large numbers come together to bathe. Gupteswar is also a favourite place for burning the dead.

Tápti.—Lighthouse; situated on the mainland near Vaux's tomb, at the mouth of the Tápti river, and opposite the village of Dumas. It consists of a circular tower of brick, with a spiral stone stair inside. The height of the lantern above high water is 91 feet. It shows a single, white, fixed dioptric light, of order four, which illuminates an area of 90 square miles, and is visible from the deck of a ship 15 miles distant.

Ta-pwon.—Township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; extending from the Pegu Yomas westwards to the Irawadi river. Teak abundant. Ta-pwon comprises 14 revenue circles, and covers an area of 678 square miles. Pop. (1877), 78,232; gross revenue, £15,883.

Ta-pwon.—Town in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 18° 20′ 20″ N., and long. 95° 32′ 10″ E., about 4 miles east of the Myit-ma-khá river. Contains a court-house for the extra-Assistant Commissioner, a police station, and an inspection bungalow.

Ta-pwon Myo-ma.—Revenue circle in the Ta-pwon township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Well cultivated with rice in the north, but subject to inundation in the south. Pop. (1876-77), 9374; gross revenue, £1884.

Tara (*Thara*).—State in Pálanpur District, Bombay.—*See* KANKEJ.

Táragarh.—Hill fortress in Ajmere-Mhairwára District, Rájputána; perched on the crest of a height overhanging the city of Ajmere, which it commands at every point. Lat. 26° 26′ 20″ N., long. 74° 40′ 15″ E. Built, according to tradition, by the mythical Rájá Aja, from whom Ajmere (Ajmír) derives its name. The fortress played an important part in the early history of the Province, forming the stronghold of all the successive dynasties which occupied the city. It is surrounded on most sides by inaccessible precipices, and is elsewhere defended by a thick and lofty wall. The fort contains several tanks, filled during the rains with water, which usually suffices for the entire year. Dismantled

in 1832, and used since 1860 as a sanatorium for the European troops stationed at Nasirábád (Nusseerábád). On its summit stands the shrine of a Muhammadan martyr, Sayyid Husáin, killed in a night attack of the Rahtors and Chauháns in 1210 A.D. This shrine has an endowment of £436 per annum, derived from the revenues of three villages.

Táragarh.—Hill fort in Hindúr State, Punjab; crowns a ridge rising from the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), in lat. 31° 10′ N., and long. 76° 50′ E. Thornton states that during the Gúrkha war of 1814-15 the enemy held this post; but in the operations preparatory to the investment of Maláun, Lieutenant Lawtie succeeded in bringing battering guns to bear upon the fort, which the Gúrkhas at once evacuated.

Tarahwán.—Ancient but decaying town in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; situated near the river Paisuni, a quarter of a mile south of Karwí, and 42 miles east of Bánda town. Pop. (1872), 3137. Magnificent but ruined fort, attributed by tradition to Rájá Basant Rái, a petty ruler who succeeded the Rájá of Panná 250 years ago. Underground passage, now almost entirely blocked up, said to be a mile in length. Six Hindu temples (two of them ancient) and five mosques. There is a large Muhammadan colony, which is rare in Bundelkhand; it was planted by Rahím Khán, who obtained a grant of Tarahwán, with the title of Nawáb, after Basant Rái's time. The place is noticeable as having been the residence of Amrit Ráo, son of the Peshwá Raghubhái. In 1803, the British Government guaranteed to him and his son a pension of £70,000; and he selected Tarahwán as his home, where he obtained a small *jágír*. Amrit Ráo died in 1824, and was succeeded by his son Benáik Ráo. On the death of the latter, the pension ceased; and his adopted children, Náráyan Ráo and Madhu Ráo, joined the mutineers in 1857, by which act they forfeited their family estates. Náráyan Ráo died a prisoner at Hazáribágh in 1860. Madhu Ráo obtained a pardon in consideration of his youth, and was educated as a Government ward at Bareilly, a provision of £3000 being made in his favour. Balwant Ráo, nephew of Benáik Ráo, owns a considerable *zamíndárí* at Karwi, continued to him by a special favour after the Mutiny. Large *bázár* for local trade. Three schools (two for girls).

Tarái (*'Moist Land'*).—A British District in the Rohilkhand Division of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 28° 50′ 30″ and 29° 22′ 30″ N. lat., and between 78° 46′ and 79° 47′ E. long. Area, 920 square miles; population, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1879, 185,647 persons. The District is bounded on the north by the Kumáun Bhábar, on the east by Nepál and the Philibhít Subdivision of Bareilly (Bareli) District, on the south by the Districts of Bareilly and Moradábád and the Native State of Rámpur, and on the west by Bijnaur (Bijnor). The

headquarters of the District are at NAINI TAL, where the European officers reside from May to November.

Physical Aspects.—The District consists of a long, narrow strip of country, running for about 90 miles east and west along the foot of the hills, with an average breadth of about 12 miles. The northern boundary is well defined by the commencement of the series of springs which burst from the surface where the waterless forest of the Bhábar tract ends. (*See* KUMAUN.) These springs, increasing and uniting in their progress, form the numerous streams that intersect the Tarái, which has a slope south-south-east of about 12 feet per mile. The banks of these streams are usually abrupt, and their beds are swampy. Their course is marked by patches of forest, diversified by grassy prairies. Of the rivers that rise in the lower hills, the Saniha joins the eastern border river, the Sárda. The Deoha is the great river of the Tarái proper, and becomes navigable at Pilibhít. The Sukhi, as its name implies, is dry except in the rainy season; but its bed, uniting with that of the Bahgul, helps, on reaching the Tarái, to form part of the canal system of the Division. The Kichaha (the Gaula of the hills) is subject to heavy floods. Between it and the Kusi are the Paha, Bhakra, Bhaur, and Dabka. The Kusi flows through *parganá* Kásipur. The Phika forms the western boundary. All these rivers eventually join the Rámganga. The wild animals found in the District are elephants, tigers, bears, leopards, hyænas, wolves, pigs, and several kinds of deer.

History, etc.—From the earliest dawn of traditional history in Kumáun, the Tarái is said to have formed an integral part of the Hill Ráj, though exposed to constant incursions from Katehir (Rohilkhand). In the time of Akbar (1556-1605 A.D.), it was known under the name of Naulákhhia or Chaurási Mál—the former from its nominal revenue of 9 *lákhs* of rupees, the latter from its presumed length of 84 *kos*. The records of 1744 show a revenue of about 4 *lákhs* of rupees (say £40,000), which during the Rohillá times dwindled to 2 *lákhs*. A system of blackmail was introduced by the Barwaiks, Mewátis, and other nominal policemen and guards, which resulted in the Tarái becoming a safe resort for banditti and escaped criminals. On the decadence of the Hill State, torn by intestine feuds and Joshi intrigues, Nandram, the Governor of Kásipur, rebelled, and afterwards handed over the territory to the Oudh Nawáb. His nephew Síb Lál was found as the lessee of that potentate when Rohilkhand was ceded to the British in 1802. There was a time, undoubtedly, when the Tarái enjoyed an apparent prosperity, as shown by mango groves, wells, etc. But this time, according to Batten and other authorities, was coincident with that of Marhattá and Rohillá troubles in the adjacent plains, when bad government in the ordinarily habitable parts of the country introduced an extraordinary number of ploughs into the borders of the forest; the

resort to that insalubrious tract ceasing when British rule gave peace and prosperity to Rohilkhand. The Government is said to have looked with indifference in early days on this uninviting tract. Since 1831, when Mr. Boulderson revised the revenue settlements, this reproach has become less deserved. The year 1851 saw an able engineer officer, Captain W. Jones, in charge of an improved system of embankments and irrigation. Under his successors, and since the formation of a separate Tarái District in 1861, and its complete subjection to Kumáun management in 1870, the history of this tract has been one of moral as well as material improvement.

Population, etc.—The only section of the inhabitants that has resided in the Tarái continuously are the Tharús and Bhúksas. These tribes claim for themselves a Rájput origin, but their real genealogy is unknown. Their ability to withstand the deadly effects of malaria is very remarkable; and they themselves attribute their safety to their constant consumption of animal food, supplied by wild pigs and deer. There are only two towns in the District, Kásipur and Jaspur. According to the Census of 1872, the population of the former was 13,113, and of the latter, 6746. With the exception of these towns, the whole population is scattered over the country in small villages. At the time the Census of 1854 was taken, the *parganás* which now belong to Tarái District formed part of Moradábád, Kumáun, and Bareilly. In 1854, the population, exclusive of Kásipur *parganá*, which was annexed in 1870, was 67,187; in 1865, 91,802; and in 1872, 114,365, or, inclusive of Kásipur, 185,813; of whom 122,657 were Hindus and 62,977 Musalmáns. The marked increase of population is entirely due to the policy laid down by Government having been strictly carried out, viz. to encourage the introduction of settlers by giving them low rates of revenue, liberal treatment, and assistance when necessary. The whole tendency of the population is to agricultural, and not to urban life.

Agriculture.—The cultivable area amounts to 463 square miles, of which 271 were actually under cultivation at the last estimate. As may be supposed, rice is the staple produce; it is sown at three seasons, according to the quality of the crop.

Natural Calamities.—The moist nature of the country ordinarily saves this tract from drought; but in 1868, some of the villages where irrigation was impracticable suffered from scarcity.

Manufactures and Trade.—There are no manufactures worthy of notice, and the chief trade is the export of grain. Vast herds of cattle graze in the District, belonging to Rohilkhand landholders, and also to the migratory trading Banjáras.

Revenue, etc.—The civil courts are those of the Superintendent and his Assistant, from whom an appeal lies to the Commissioner of Kumáun in certain cases; and that of the *tahsíldár* of Rudrapur. The same

officers have criminal powers under the Indian Penal Code and Code of Criminal Procedure, and the Rájá of Kásipur is a Special Magistrate for *parganá* Kásipur. Bázpur, Gadarpur, and Rudrapur have also a Special Native Magistrate. The District is divided into *parganás* Kásipur, Bázpur, Gadarpur, Rudrapur, Kilpuri, Nánakmata, and Bilhari. The land revenue, amounting to £17,401, has only lately been regularly assessed, after a long series of temporary arrangements. Its incidence, as compared with the total area, is only 7⅛d. per acre; while on cultivable area the rate is 2s. 3⅜d. per acre, and on cultivated area, 2s. 4⅞d. per acre, showing a very moderate Government demand. Except in *parganás* Kásipur and Nánakmata, the proprietary right is still vested in the State alone. Grazing duties are levied, and yield about £1200 per annum. The crime of the District is low, consisting principally of cattle thefts committed by wandering clans of Ahírs, Gujars, and Mewátis. There are 7 police stations in the Tarái.

Climate, etc.—The climate is normally bad; but improvement is gradually following the drainage of swamps, the cutting down of forest, and the spread of cultivation. There is much fever of an intermittent type. The death-rate in 1875 was reported at 31·76 per thousand. Cattle epidemics are frequent and severe.

Tarái.—Subdivision of Dárjíling District, Bengal. Area, 274 square miles; number of houses, 11,111. Pop. (1872), 47,985, of whom 40,702, or 84·8 per cent., were Hindus; 5221, or 10·9 per cent., Muhammadans; 12 Christians; 2050, or 4·3 per cent., 'others.' Proportion of males in total population, 53·5 per cent.; average density of population, 175 per square mile; average number of houses per square mile, 41; inmates per house, 4·3. The cost of Subdivisional administration in 1870-71 was returned at £1123.

Tárakeswar.—Village in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 53′ N., long. 88° 4′ E. Famous for its large shrine dedicated to Siva, resorted to by crowds of pilgrims all the year round. This temple is richly endowed with money and lands, supplemented by the offerings of wealthy devotees. It is under the management of a *mahant* or priest, who enjoys its revenues for life. Two large religious gatherings are held annually at Tárakeswar. The first of them, the *Sivarátri*, takes place in February; and the ceremonies enjoined on this day are considered by the followers of Siva to be the most sacred of all their observances. The three essential rites of the *Sivarátri* are, fasting during the day, and holding a vigil and worshipping Siva as the marvellous and interminable Linga (typifying the exaltation of Siva-worship over that of Vishnu and Brahma) during the night. It is estimated that 20,000 people annually visit the shrine on the occasion of this festival, which occupies only one day. A considerable *melá* or fair held at the same time continues for three days. The second great religious festival is the

Chaitra Sankránti, falling within April, on the last day of the Hindu month of Chaitra, which is also the day of the swinging festival. The temple is then visited by persons who come for purposes of penance, or to lead a temporary ascetic life in fulfilment of vows made to Siva in the crisis of their lives. The swinging festival of the present day is a very harmless affair compared with what it used to be in olden times, the votaries now being merely suspended by a belt instead of by means of hooks pierced through the fleshy muscles on both sides of the spine. The fair on this occasion lasts six days, and is estimated to be attended by about 15,000 people. (For fuller details, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. pp. 324-328.)

Ta-ra-na.—Revenue circle in the Gyaing Than-lweng township of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3114; land revenue, £738, and capitation tax, £294.

Taráon.—One of the petty States of Bundelkhand, known as the Kálinjar Chaubés, under the political superintendence of the Central India Agency. Area, 12 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 8000; estimated revenue, £2000. Taráon is one of the five shares into which the estates of Rám Kishan Chaubé of Kálinjar were divided in 1817. The *jágírdár* or chief maintains a force of 250 foot-soldiers. The present chief, a Bráhman by caste, is named Chatarbhuj Chaubé.

Tárápur.—Town in the Native State of Cambay, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 5337.

Tárápur.—Port in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay. Lat. 19° 50′ N., long. 72° 42′ 30″ E. Annual average value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £6680, and exports, £9413.

Tárbela.—Town in Hazára District, Punjab; situated about 1 mile from the Indus, in lat. 34° 7′ N., and long. 72° 50′ E., 24 miles due west of Abbottábád. Pop. (1868), 5784. Headquarters of a police circle. Inhabited by a purely agricultural community. Tárbela is rather a cluster of villages than a town; its various parts, though closely adjoining, being separated from one another by cultivated fields.

Tárgáon.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated 6 miles east of Unao town, in lat. 26° 31′ 50″ N., and long. 80° 38′ 50″ E. Founded about 400 years ago by Tára Sinh, who, when out hunting, was delighted with the appearance of the place, cleared the jungle, and built a residence here. Pop. (1869), 4537, namely 4459 Hindus and 78 Muhammadans. Two weekly markets. Famous for the manufacture of glass bracelets.

Táríkere.—*Táluk* in the north-east of Kádúr District, Mysore. Area, 372 square miles, of which 42 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 80,154, namely, 77,264 Hindus, 2798 Muhammadans, 17 Jains, and 75 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £10,955,

or 8s. per cultivated acre. The surface is diversified by hill and plain, and yields a great variety of crops. A portion of the BABA BUDAN mountains is included, on the slopes of which are coffee plantations. At the foot of the hills, iron-ore is worked.

Táríkere (lit. '*The Tank of the Tári Tree*'—Mimosa catechu).—Municipal town in Kádúr District, Mysore; 30 miles south of Chikmagalúr. Lat. 13° 42′ 20″ N., long. 75° 51′ E. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 5302, viz. 4373 Hindus, 908 Muhammadans, 16 Jains, and 5 Christians; municipal revenue (1874-75), £181; rate of taxation, 8d. per head. Táríkere is thought to occupy the site of a town called Kátur, founded at the end of the 12th century by one of the Ballála kings. The present fort was erected, and the name of Táríkere conferred, in 1569, by a *pálegár* of Basvapatna, to whose family the surrounding country was granted by the Mughals. They continued in possession until 1761, when Haidar Alí annexed the territory to Mysore, but awarded the chief a maintenance allowance. The representative of the line took a leading part in the disturbances of 1830, which resulted in the assumption of the government of Mysore by the British. His son continued at large fomenting disloyalty until 1834, when he was seized and hanged.

Tariwála.—Village in Firozpur District, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 2′ N., and long. 75° 14′ E. (Thornton), on the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), which divides opposite this village into two channels, and insulates a piece of ground 8 miles in length by 2 in width.

Tarn Tarn.—Southern *tahsíl* of Amritsar (Umritsur) District, Punjab; consisting throughout of an unbroken plain, most of which is under cultivation. Area, 594 square miles; pop. (1868), 241,150.

Tarn Tarn.—Town in Amritsar (Umritsur) District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; situated in lat. 30° 28′ N., and long. 74° 57′ E., on the Amritsar and Málwá road, 12 miles south of Amritsar city. Pop. (1868), 2709. Founded by Gúrú Arjun, son and successor of Gúrú Rám Dás (the builder of Amritsar). Arjun constructed in the town a magnificent tank, and erected by its side a Síkh temple. This tank possesses miraculous powers on all persons afflicted with leprosy who can swim across it, whence the town derives its name. Ranjít Sinh greatly revered the temple at Tarn Tarn, and overlaid it with plates of copper gilt, besides richly ornamenting it. On the north side of the tank stands a lofty column, erected by Prince Náo Nihál Sinh. Tarn Tarn ranks as the capital of the Manjha, or heart of the Bári Doáb, a central tract running from Amritsar to below Kasúr in Lahore District. This region is historically famous as the chief stronghold of the Síkh people, and the great recruiting ground for the army of the Khálsa. Small trade with Amritsar. Manufacture of iron vessels. Court-house, police station, *sarái* (native inn), central distillery,

dispensary, post office, schoolhouse. Leper asylum outside the town, for the relief of the afflicted poor of Amritsar and Lahore Districts. Suburb inhabited by a tribe of lepers, who claim descent from Gúrú Arjun, who was himself, according to tradition, a sufferer from the disease.

Tárobá.—Lake in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 20′ N., and long. 79° 22′ E., 14 miles east of Segáon, in a basin of the Chimúr Hills, at a considerable height above the plain. It is of great depth, and though artificially embanked at one point, has the appearance of a natural lake. Long ago, a marriage procession of Gaulís from the west was passing through these hills. They sought for water in vain, when a weird old man bade the bride and bridegroom dig together for a spring. As they dug, a clear fountain leapt forth, and spread into a wide lake, under the depths of which the marriage party still dwell. By the lake side a palm-tree grew up, which flourished during the day, but every evening sank into the earth. A rash pilgrim one morning seated himself on the tree-top, and was borne into the skies, where the flames of the sun consumed him. The palm then shrivelled into dust, and in its place appeared an image of Tárobá, the spirit of the lake. Formerly, at the call of pilgrims, vessels for their use would rise from the waters. At last, however, an evil man, instead of restoring the vessels to the lake, bore them away to his home. They quickly vanished, and pilgrims now call for them in vain. Still, however, the country folk hear faint sounds of drums and trumpets passing round the lake; and old men yet live who, when the waters sank low in a dry year, descried dimly in the depths the golden pinnacles of a fairy temple. The lake attracts many worshippers, especially in December and January, wives yearning for children, and sick men praying for health. A Gond performs the sacred rites of the god. The fish grow to a large size; the skeleton of one stranded measured 8 feet in length.

Taroch (*Utrach*).—One of the Hill States, under the political superintendence of the Punjab Government; lying between 30° 55′ and 31° 3′ N. lat., and between 77° 37′ and 77° 51′ E. long. Area, 67 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 6000. Taroch formerly constituted a part of Sirmúr State. When it fell under the dominion of the British, Thákur Kuram Sinh was the nominal chief, but, on account of his great age and infirmities, his brother Jhabu conducted the administration. In 1819, a *sanad* was bestowed on Jhabu, conferring, after his brother's death, the State on him and his heirs. This *sanad* was confirmed in 1843 by another granted to Thákur Ranjít Sinh, in which claims for forced labour (*begar*) were commuted for a payment of £28. The revenue of the State is estimated at £600. The military force is 80 men.

Ta-rup-maw-myo-ma.—Revenue circle in the Ta-pwon township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Undulating country

towards the east, covered with *eng* forest. Pop. (1876-77), 6080; gross revenue, £952.

Tásgáon.—Chief town of the Tásgáon Subdivision of Sátára District, Bombay; situated 60 miles south-east of Sátára city, and 85 miles north of Belgaum, in lat. 17° 1′ 59″ N., and long. 74° 38′ 40″ E. Pop. (1872), 10,528. Tásgáon is a municipal town, with an annual income of £176. Sub-judge's court and post office.

Tatapati Ghát.—Hill pass leading across the Eastern Gháts from Vizagapatam District to Mádugula, Madras.

Tatta (*Thato*).—Subdivision of Jerruck Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Area, 622 square miles; pop. (1872), 37,926. Imperial revenue (1873-74), £6135; local revenue, £1228; total, £7363.

Tatta (*Thato;* known among the inhabitants as *Nagar Thato*).—Chief town of the *táluk* of the same name in the Jerruck Deputy Collectorate, Sind; situated in lat. 24° 44′ N., and long. 68° E., about 4 miles west of the right bank of the Indus; distant about 50 miles east from Karáchi (Kurrachee), 32 miles south-south-west from Jerruck, and 24 miles north-east from Mírpur Sakro. Pop. (1872), 7951, including 3874 Musalmáns and 4070 Hindus. The town is built on a slight eminence in an alluvial valley at the foot of the Makli Hills. It would appear to have been at one time insulated by the waters of the Indus; and to this day, after the subsidence of the annual inundation, numerous stagnant pools are left which infect the air, producing a bad form of fever which has made Tatta notoriously unhealthy at particular seasons of the year. It was mainly from this cause, combined with the unwholesome water of the place, that the British troops stationed here in 1839 suffered such serious mortality. Tatta is most easily and speedily reached from Karáchi by the Sind Railway as far as Jangsháhi, whence a metalled road, 13 miles long, leads directly to the town itself. Headquarters of a *múkhtiárkár* and *tappádár*, and a police *thána*. Tatta is a municipality with an annual income varying from £800 to £900. It has a Government Anglo-vernacular school, besides several private schools, a post office, and subordinate jail. The civil and criminal court-house is situate on the Makli Hills, close to the town, where also is the Deputy Collector's bungalow, formerly one of the tombs.

The population of Tatta has fallen off very much during the past century. Hamilton, who visited the town in 1699, calls it a very large and rich city, about 3 miles long and 1½ broad. He states that 80,000 persons had, a short time previous to his visit, died of the plague, and that one-half of the city was in consequence uninhabited. It is also related by Pottinger, that when the Persian king Nádir Sháh entered Tatta at the head of his army in 1742, there were 40,000 weavers, 20,000

other artisans, and 60,000 dealers of various kinds. In 1840, the number of inhabitants was variously estimated at from 10,000 to 40,000; but the late Captain J. Wood (of the Indian navy), who had good opportunities of judging in this respect, estimated in 1837 the number of tradesmen and artificers at 982, and the entire population at not more than 10,000. The present trade of Tatta is not a tithe of what it once was. It consists mostly of silk and cotton manufactures and grain. *Lúngís* (scarves or shawls), a thick, rich, and variegated fabric of cotton and silk, are still made, but not to the same extent as formerly. Coarse cotton fabrics, both plain and coloured, are also woven to some extent, but they have been greatly superseded by the cheaper Manchester goods. In 1758, a factory was established at Tatta during the reign of Ghulám Sháh Kalhora by the East India Company, but it was withdrawn in 1775. Again, in 1799, another commercial mission was attempted under the same auspices, but this, like the former, terminated unsatisfactorily. The house belonging to the factory at Tatta was, up to 1839, in good repair, and in that year it was occupied by a portion of the British garrison. In 1837, the total silk and cotton manufactures of Tatta were valued at £41,400, and the imports of British goods at £3000. At present, the entire value of the local import trade, comprising upwards of twenty different articles, appears to average between 4 and 5 *lákhs* of rupees (say £40,000 to £50,000), the largest items being grain, *ghí*, sugar, and raw silk. The exports are but few in number, consisting only of silk manufactures, grain, cotton cloth, and hides. As regards the transit trade, a portion of the grain received from Haidarábád *táluk* and the Sháhbandar and Sehwán divisions finds its way through this town to Karáchi and the neighbouring hill country.

Among the ancient remains of Tatta may be mentioned the Jamá Masjíd and fort. The town itself is undoubtedly of great antiquity, and it has by some been supposed to be the Patála of the ancients. Outram assigns its foundation to the year 1445, but other writers state that it was not founded before 1522. The general opinion is that the former date is the more correct, and that the town owes its rise to a prince of the Samma dynasty, Jám Nizám-ud-dín (commonly called Jám Ninda), whose tomb is to this day pointed out among others on the Makli Hills. In 1555, Tatta is said by Postans to have been pillaged and burnt by Portuguese mercenaries. In 1591, it was again destroyed during the invasion of Sind by Akbar. The Jamá Masjíd, by far the finest building in Tatta, is supposed to have been commenced in 1644 by order of the Mughal Emperor, Sháh Jahán, as a memorial of his regard for the inhabitants, he having been permitted to pay his devotions in the former chief mosque during his flight from his father Jahángír. The building is rectangular in shape, 315 feet long by

190 feet wide, and covers a space of 6316 square yards. The interior is beautifully painted in encaustic, the delicacy and harmony of the colouring being remarkable; there are also some very elegant specimens of perforated stonework in different parts of the mosque. It is said to have cost, in all, 9 *lákhs* of rupees; and it would, in all probability, like the tombs on the Makli Hills, have long since fallen into decay, had not the inhabitants of Tatta, by subscriptions raised amongst themselves, assisted by a money grant from the British Government, put the building into substantial repair. The fort of Tatta was commenced about 1699, during the reign of Aurangzeb, by Nawáb Hafiz-ullá, but it was never completed. The foundation has now been almost entirely removed to provide material for building purposes.

Tattamangalam.—Town in the Chittúr District of Cochin State, Madras. Lat. 10° 41′ N., long. 76° 46′ E.; pop. (1871), 8894, inhabiting 1784 houses. *Munsif's* court.

Tavi.—One of the petty States in Jháláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue, £271; of which £31 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £2, 10s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Tavli.—Town in Baroda State, Guzerat, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 5952.

Tavoy.—A District in the Tenasserim Division of British Burma, lying between 13° 16′ and 15° 10′ N. lat., and between 97° 48′ and 98° 44′ E. long. Area, 7200 square miles; pop. (1872), 71,827 persons. Bounded north by Amherst District, east by the Yoma Mountains, south by Mergui District, and west by the Bay of Bengal. The administrative headquarters are at TAVOY TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of Tavoy District is that of a narrow tract, enclosed by mountains on three sides, and open on the west towards the sea. The main range of the Yomas, with a general north-north-west and south-south-east direction, rises in places to a height of 5000 feet, and, throwing off numerous densely wooded spurs, forms an almost impassable natural barrier between British territory and Siam. It is crossed by three routes. The northern is by the Htandoung at the source of the Siamese stream May-nam-naw-ey, in lat. 14° 26′ 53″ N., and long. 98° 32′ E., from Tavoy to Kan-bú-rí *viâ* Met-ta. The southern is by the Amya Pass, 60 miles lower down, which derives its name from a village on the Tenasserim river. Twelve days are occupied in travelling by this route from Tavoy to Bangkok; the first takes 16½ days. Thirty-eight miles south of Amya is another road into Siam through the Mai-bhúra Pass; but this is very difficult, and is only used by Karengs. Bounding the Tenasserim valley on the west, and constituting the watershed between the Tavoy and Tenasserim rivers, is another range thrown off by the main chain, in about lat. 14° 42′ N., which extends down through the District into Mergui to the

great westerly bend of the Tenasserim river. The highest peak in this range is Nwa-la-bo, the ascent of which has been made several times. The chief rivers of the District are the TAVOY and the TENASSERIM. The latter is formed by the junction of two streams, which unite near Met-ta, flow eastwards, then south into Mergui District. The District of Tavoy has never been carefully surveyed as regards its geological formation. The mountain ranges appear to be granite; and some of the low hills consist of alluvium, composed chiefly of gravel with small boulders of sandstone, conglomerate, and quartz. The intervening valleys have occasional patches of clay slate, more or less altered by igneous action. The plain country in the lower course of the Tavoy river consists of stiff, and sometimes highly ferruginous, clay. It is certain that Tavoy District formerly yielded tin and lead, and there is reason to believe that the tribute to the Government of Ava was mainly paid in these metals; but since the British occupation, lead has not been worked, and tin is only collected in small quantities. Gold is washed at the head-waters of many streams, and copper is said to exist in two or three localities at the mouth of the Toung-byouk river. There is a small hill of magnetic iron-ore about 3 miles north-west of Tavoy, specimens of which have been analyzed, and reported to contain more than 66 per cent. of pure metal. The mineral springs are of two kinds, viz. sulphurous and saline; the first are situated near the bifurcation of the Tenasserim river, and the others east and south of Tavoy. The thermometer in the hottest sulphurous spring has been found to stand at 119° F., and in the hottest saline one at 144°. The principal saline spring at Pai is in a sandy basin in the midst of granite rocks, on the margin of a cold-water stream, where it bubbles up from three or four vents; in one the thermometer has been found to rise to within 14° of boiling-point.

The chief timber-trees of Tavoy District are—*theng-gan* (Hopea odorata), which sometimes attains a height of 250 feet, and furnishes a strong wood used extensively in the construction of boats; *pyeng-gado* (Xylia dolabriformis); *anan* (Fagræa fragrans), which hardens by submersion, and is valuable for bridges and piles; *pyeng-ma* (Lagerstræmia regina); *eng-gyeng;* and *padouk* (Pterocarpus indicus), the wood of which resembles mahogany, but is heavier; it is much prized, and is largely used for gun-carriages in India. Numerous gums and medicinal plants are also found in Tavoy. The wild animals include the elephant, rhinoceros, tiger, leopard, bear, ant-eater, hog, and orang-outang. Fish abound in great variety.

History.—Tavoy District has at various times formed a portion of the dominions of the kings of Siam, Pegu, and Ava, but its history is involved in great obscurity. The first settlers were probably Siamese; but at a very early date a colony of Arakanese established themselves, who

have left their mark on the language. The earliest written accounts of the country state that the Burmese king, Na-ra-pad-dí-tsí-thú, who came hither rather as a preacher of religion than as a conqueror, founded Kyek-hlwot in Khwe-doung Bay, not far from the mouth of the Tavoy river, in 1200 A.D. Na-ra-pad-dí-tsí-thú also built the pagoda on Tavoy point, which is perhaps the first that placed Buddhism on a permanent basis in this region. Anxious to connect their religion with the great Athawka, Buddhist writers assert that in 315 B.C. that monarch ordered the construction of a pagoda in what is now Tavoy town. Many years afterwards, the country was subject to Siam, and still later to the sovereigns of Pegu, from whom it passed to the kings of Burma; but it continually suffered from Siamese invasions. About 1752, the ruler of Tavoy set up for an independent prince, and made overtures to the East India Company; but the terms proposed were too exorbitant from a pecuniary point of view. Soon afterwards (1757), Tavoy again became a Province of Siam: but in 1759, it surrendered to Aloung-bhúra or Alompra, the great Burmese conqueror.

From 1760 until the signing of the treaty of Yandabú in February 1826, the country was torn by internal rebellions and attacks from the Siamese. During the first Anglo-Burmese war in 1824, an expedition was despatched against the District, which ended in Tavoy being handed over to the British. In 1829, another revolt broke out, headed by Moung Da, the former governor, but this was speedily suppressed, and since then the District of Tavoy has remained in undisturbed possession of the British. For some years, a body of troops was stationed in Tavoy town, but the District is now guarded solely by police.

The most famous pagoda in the District is the Sheng Mut-tí, a few miles south of Tavoy town, containing an image, near which are a stone and a banian tree, all three supposed to have been miraculously floated across the ocean from India. The temple is 58 feet high, and 300 feet in circumference at the base. On Tavoy Point, on the right bank of the river, is the Sheng-maw, only 9 feet high, founded in 1204 A.D., and said to contain a tooth of Gautama. North of Tavoy is the Sheng-dha-way, of very early date, and built on the spot upon which a holy relic of Buddha alighted after flying through the air when released by its possessor. In addition to these, there are 10 pagodas in the town and suburbs of Tavoy, and 19 others in the District, all of more or less sanctity, and some supposed to be of great antiquity.

Population.—Owing to the mountainous and wooded nature of the country, and the incessant warfare to which it has been subjected, Tavoy has always been sparsely inhabited. It is doubtful who were the first settlers; but tradition points to a colony of Arakanese near Tavoy, and is supported by some dialectic peculiarities in the language

of the present inhabitants. From the annual official returns, it appears that in 1855-56 the population numbered 52,867 persons, who by 1864-65 had increased to 62,427. In 1872, when a regular Census was taken in the District, the population was returned at 71,827 persons, occupying 227 villages and 12,849 houses. The majority of the inhabitants occupy the valley of the Tavoy river, where most of the arable land in the District is found. Karengs numbered 5748; Talaings, 3797; Burmese, 59,361; Chinese, 1554; Hindus, about 400; Muhammadans, about 700; the remainder consisting of a few Shans, Indo-Portuguese, and 'others.' The number of agriculturists was returned at 31,218; of mechanics, 21,819. By 1877, the population of Tavoy District had increased to 79,722, of whom 39,682 were males and 40,040 females. Under 12 years of age, there were—males, 18,058; females, 15,536. Exclusive of Tavoy town, only 3 villages were returned as having a population exceeding 1000; 27 with from 500 to 1000 inhabitants; 75 with from 200 to 500; and 121 with less than 200. TAVOY TOWN, the headquarters of the District, is situated on the left bank of the river of the same name. Its population in 1877 was 14,795.

Agriculture.—The area under cultivation in Tavoy is barely more than one-seventieth of its whole extent, and the cultivable but uncultivated area amounts to 3550 square miles. It is to its mineral and forest wealth that Tavoy must trust for its development, as, owing to the absence of roads, and to the existence of better soil in the neighbouring and more accessible District of Amherst, it offers few attractions to immigrants. Since Tavoy was ceded to the British in 1824, the area under cultivation has steadily increased. In 1855-56, the cultivated area (exclusive of *toungya* or hill gardens) was 37,360 acres. In 1868, the area under rice was 42,700 acres, which by 1877 had increased to 48,067 acres. The area of the hill gardens is between 8000 and 9000 acres. The average out-turn of rice is about 1270 lbs. per acre. The river banks within range of tidal overflow are cultivated with the *dhani* or Nipa palm. The leaves of this plant are used for thatching purposes; the extracted juice is drunk or converted into molasses; the flower is made into a preserve, and the fruit eaten. The betel-nut is extensively grown for home consumption. In fruit-trees the District is particularly rich; the mango, tamarind, jack, mangosteen, guava, pine-apple, plantain, orange, shaddock, pomegranate, etc., abound. The average size of a holding in Tavoy is 5·48 acres, for which a single pair of buffaloes and one plough are sufficient. In 1877, the price of rice per *maund* of 80 lbs. was 3s. 3d. A plough bullock cost £4, 10s., and a buffalo, £3. In the same year, the daily wages of a skilled artisan were returned as 2s. 6d.; of an unskilled workman, 1s. As a general rule, the land is worked by the proprietors, and there are but few labourers

employed. These are usually paid in grain to the value of about 14s. a month, in addition to receiving board and lodging. Tenancies are, as a rule, created by verbal agreement. The average rent of land is about 4s. per acre.

Commerce, etc.—With its only port difficult of access, and with no means of internal communication, the trade of Tavoy District has always been small, and almost entirely confined to Siam and the Straits. There is no inland trade. The principal imports are raw cotton and piece-goods, raw silk, tea, crockery, wines and spirits, metals, and provisions. In 1877, the number of vessels that entered Tavoy was 371, with a tonnage of 32,538; in the same year, 485 vessels, with a tonnage of 34,583, cleared from the port. The aggregate value of exports and imports amounted to £102,916. A small coasting traffic is carried on with Maulmain and Rangoon in *dhaní* leaves, jaggery sugar, earthenware vessels, fruits, English silk and cotton goods, grain, and vegetables. The chief manufactures are salt and earthen pots. The salt is made partly by evaporation and partly by boiling, and is consumed entirely in the District. The pots are made in and near Tavoy town of clay brought from the neighbourhood of Mro-houng, which sells on the spot for 1s. 6d., and at Tavoy for 5s., per boat-load of 3650 lbs. This quantity, mixed with about one-third part sand, will suffice for 200 pots, which take about fifteen days to complete, and sell at an average rate of £1, 16s. per 100.

Administration.—The imperial and provincial revenue realized in 1853-54, the first year for which returns are available, was £9917; in 1863-64, it rose to £16,759; in 1873-74, to £21,545; and in 1877-78, to £22,736. In 1877, the local revenue of the District amounted to £1733. Tavoy District was formerly administered by a Deputy Commissioner and 6 *goung-gyúps*, together with a *tsit-ke* or native judge for the town, *thúgyís* for the circles, and *goungs* for hamlets. The 'districts' of the *goung-gyúps* have now been amalgamated into 4 townships, with an extra-Assistant Commissioner in charge of each. Up to 1861-62, the police force consisted of the *thúgyí*, *goung*, *kyedan-gyí*, and 2 peons which were allowed to each *goung-gyúp*; whilst in Tavoy town there were 5 *goungs*, 6 *jamadárs*, and 43 peons. The regular police force in 1877 numbered 199 officers and men, costing £4962.

Owing to the labours of the Buddhist monks and of the American Baptist missionaries, a knowledge of reading and writing is fairly diffused throughout the District. By the Census of 1872, it was ascertained that of the total population 20·55 per cent. of those under 12 years of age, 46·23 of those between 12 and 20, and 41·54 of those above 20 could read and write. Tavoy town contains a Government District school, with 69 pupils on its rolls in 1876-77; and a Kareng

mixed normal school, with 20 pupils in the same year. There is a hospital and dispensary in Tavoy. The prison was formerly occupied by convicts from India; but on the establishment of a penal settlement in the Andaman Islands, it was converted into a lock-up. In 1877, the daily average number of prisoners was 56. Tavoy town is a municipality, with a municipal revenue in 1877-78 of £1049.

Climate, etc.—The climate of Tavoy District on the whole is pleasant, the intense heat in February and March being moderated by sea-breezes. The ordinary rainfall varies from 190 to 220 inches a year.

Tavoy.—Chief town and headquarters of Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 14° 5′ N., and long. 98° 13′ E., on the Tavoy river, about 30 miles from its mouth. Pop. (1877-78), 14,795. The town lies low, and its north-western and southern portions are flooded at high tide, and swampy during the rains. It is laid out in straight streets, and the houses are for the most part built of timber or bamboo, and thatched with *dhaní* leaves. To the east and west ranges of hills run nearly due north and south, and the surrounding land is under rice cultivation. Tavoy contains court-houses, a custom-house, and the usual public offices. Its trade is of little importance, and is carried on chiefly with ports in British Burma, and with the Straits Settlements. The principal exports are rice, *dhaní* leaves, jaggery sugar, earthen pots, wood-oil, timber, and fruits; imports—piece-goods, long cloth, turkey red cloth, silk and cotton velvets, iron, crockery, tobacco, and dried vegetables. The total municipal revenue of Tavoy in 1877-78 was £1049. The town was founded in 1751; and ruins of several earlier cities exist in various parts of the District, notably at Old Tavoy, or Myo-houng, a few miles to the north of the modern Tavoy. In 1752, the ruler of the country made ineffectual overtures to the East India Company to establish a factory at his capital. During the first Burmese war, Tavoy was surrendered to the British; and for some years was garrisoned by a detachment from Maulmain, which, however, has since been withdrawn.

Tavoy.—River in the Tenasserim Division, British Burma; formed by the union of several torrents, which rise in the Ma-hlwai spur, and in the western slopes of the main range in the extreme north of Tavoy District. The united stream takes a southerly course of about 120 miles through a narrow valley nowhere exceeding 12 miles in width, and flowing past the town of Tavoy, falls into the sea at Tavoy Point, about 30 miles lower down. From its source to near Gnyoung-dún-lai, the Tavoy is unnavigable; from this village as far south as Rwon-lai, about 32 miles above Tavoy, at which place the rapids cease, and the tide is felt, the river is practicable for boats drawing not more than 3 or 4 feet. Three miles above the town, the character of the river changes, and below Than-lyeng-tshiep or Good-

ridge plains it flows through an alluvial tract in a wide channel studded with islands. The mouth of the Tavoy is, properly speaking, an estuary, being about 15 miles wide, and navigable by vessels of any burden. Ships can find safe anchorage at all times within Cap Island, a rock about 20 miles from Goodridge plains. Fresh water can be almost always obtained along the western shore as far as the most northern rocky islet, Kathay-ma-kywon, in which is a fine spring known as 'English Well,' and called by the natives Eng-ga-ní-dweng.

Tavoy Island. — An island off the coast of Tenasserim, British Burma, a little to the south of the mouth of the Tavoy river. It extends from lat. 12° 55′ to 13° 13′ N., and from long. 98° 17′ to 98° 23′ E., and is about 18 miles long by 2 broad. On the east, there is an excellent harbour called Port Owen. The caves in the hills of the island are tenanted by the edible-nest-building swallow, and the right of taking the nests is leased out by Government. They are much prized by the Chinese, who boil them down into a nutritious soup; and nearly all the nests collected are exported to China and the Straits.

Tawá.—River of the Central Provinces; debouching from the Sátpura Hills, in Hoshangábád District, through a picturesque gorge, 16 miles south-east of Hoshangábád town, and draining a large area within the hills to the south. In the rains, its floods are sudden and violent; at other times, its bed exposes many fine sections, showing the geological structure of the hills. Flowing west across the valley, it expands into a wide sandy channel, and joins the Narbada (Nerbudda) in lat. 22° 48′ N., and long. 77° 49′ E., 4 miles above Hoshangábád. The confluence is marked by an old temple, near which a religious fair is held every year.

Taw-dan.—Revenue circle in the Meng-bra township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3368; gross revenue, £610.

Taw-gan.—Revenue circle in the U-rí-toung (Oo-ree-toung) township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2118; gross revenue, £931.

Taw-kú.—Revenue circle in the Angyí township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2440. Taw-ku village contains many monasteries and public rest-houses, and the ruins of an ancient pagoda, one of the 37 temples erected over the resting-places of the holy relic now enshrined in the Shwe Tshan-daw at Twan-te.

Taw-nouk-lay. — Revenue circle in Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2233; gross revenue, £980.

Taxila.—Ancient ruins in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab.—*See* DERI SHAHAN.

Tehrí. — State in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces.—*See* ORCHHA.

Tehrí.—Capital of Tehrí or Orchhá State, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 24° 44′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 52′ 50″ E., near the south-west corner of the State, 40 miles from Orchhá, the former capital. A miserable, ill-built town, with no respectable houses, except the Rájá's palace. A few handsome temples, erected as tombs or cenotaphs. Large fort of Tíkamgarh, within the town.

Tehrí Garhwál.—Native State under the Political Superintendence of the Government of the North-Western Provinces.—*See* GARHWAL.

Tekalkota (*Tekkulcota*).—Town in Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 15° 31′ N., long. 76° 56′ E. Formerly, according to Pharoah, the chief town of a *táluk* given by the Vijayanagar sovereign to the Nair *pálegár* of Bellary, but now included in the Bellary *táluk*. It fell into the hands of the Muhammadan conquerors of the Deccan in the 16th century, was taken by Haidar Alí when he overran the Balaghát, and ceded by the Nizám to the British in 1800. Distance north from Bellary city, 28 miles. There is a watch-tower on one of the hills, and the ruins of an old stone fort built by the *pálegár;* also a fort in better condition, constructed by order of Haidar Alí, and an old temple to Iswara containing an inscription on stone, in the Hala Kánarese character.

Tekkali.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras.—*See* RAGHUNATH-APURAM.

Tek-pyouk.—Revenue circle in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. The country is well cultivated towards the east, but hilly in the west. Pop. (1877), 3809; gross revenue, £632.

Telingá (or *Telingána*). —Ancient name of one of the principal kingdoms of Southern India.—*See* ANDHRA.

Tellicherri (*Tallacheri*).—Municipal town and seaport in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 44′ 53″ N., long. 75° 31° 38′ E.; pop. (1871), 20,479, including 12,608 Hindus and 7080 Muhammadans. Number of houses, 4378. Tellicherri is a Subdivisional station, and contains the District court and jail, custom-house, churches, and many Government and mercantile offices. It is a healthy and picturesque town, built upon a group of wooded hills running down to the sea, and protected by a natural breakwater of rock. The town, including the suburbs, occupies about 5 square miles, and was at one time defended by a strong mud wall. The citadel or castle, still in excellent preservation, stands to the north of the town, and is now used as a District jail. It is built of laterite, in the form of a square, with flanking bastions on the south-east and north-west corners. The south-east bastion has also a cavalier bastion above it. On the north is another bastion, situated on a cliff overhanging the sea, and separated from the

main work by a space of about 150 yards. The immediate precincts of the citadel were further protected by a strong wall, of which portions still remain, loopholed for musketry and with flanking towers at intervals. The old Residency is now occupied by the Sub-Collector. The native town lies to the south; the principal street (*bázár*) runs parallel to the coast, and is a mile in length. The exports, consisting chiefly of coffee, cardamoms, and sandal-wood, were valued in 1876 at £561,500; the imports, at £328,800: number of ships, 1360; tonnage, 126,813. A white dioptric light marks the harbour. Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £1412; incidence of taxation, 1s. 1½d. per head of population (20,504) within municipal limits. The rainfall averages about 90 inches a year; the death-rate, 33 per thousand.

The East India Company established a factory at Tellicherri in 1683, to secure the pepper and cardamom trade; and on several occasions, between 1708 and 1761, the Company obtained from the Kalastri or Cherakal Rájá, and other local chiefs, not only grants of land in and near Tellicherri, but some important privileges, such as the right to collect customs, administer justice, etc. within these grants. Haidar's invasion of Malabar narrowed the Company's operations for a time; and in 1766, the factory was reduced to a Residency. From 1780 to 1782, the town withstood a siege by Haidar's general Sardár Khán; on the arrival of relief from Bombay, the enemy were severely handled in a sortie, and the siege was raised. In the subsequent wars with Mysore (Maisúr), Tellicherri was the base of operations for the ascent of the Gháts from the west coast. After the peace, the town became the seat of the Superintendent of North Malabar, and of the Provincial Court of Circuit.

Tenasserim (*Ta-neng-tha-ri*).—A Division of the Province of British Burma; comprising the 6 Districts of AMHERST, TAVOY, MERGUI, SHWE-GYENG, TOUNG-NGU, and the SALWIN HILL TRACTS, all of which see separately. Area, 46,780 square miles; pop. (1872), 600,727 persons. These Districts formed the tract south of Pegu conquered from Burma in 1826, and were for many years generally known under their official name of the 'Tenasserim Provinces.'

Tenasserim.—Township in Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. A mountainous and forest-clad tract, with but little cultivated land. It comprises 4 revenue circles; headquarters at TENASSERIM TOWN. Pop. (1877), 6516; gross revenue, £1088.

Tenasserim.—Revenue circle in Mergui District, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 2378; gross revenue, £530.

Tenasserim.—Town in Mergui District, and headquarters of the township of the same name, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 12° 5′ 40″ N., and long. 99° 2′ 55″ E., on a neck of land at the confluence of the Great and Little Tenasserim rivers, 33 miles

from the mouth of the Tenasserim, and 40 miles south-east of Mergui. The town is built on a rock of old red sandstone, along the lower slopes of an irregular hill about 200 feet high, and is surrounded by mountainous and forest-clad country. Once a large and important city, Tenasserim has, owing to conquest by the Burmese and repeated attacks by the Siamese, dwindled down into a village of only 666 (1877) inhabitants. It was founded by the Siamese in 1373 A.D.; and a stone pillar, existing to this day, is traditionally asserted to have been erected as a memorial of the event. The pillar bears no inscription, but a Burmese legend relates that a woman was buried alive under it as an offering to the gods for the future prosperity of the town. It was surrounded by a mud wall faced with brick, which enclosed an area of 4 square miles. This defence has recently been pulled down, and the bricks used in building a jail at Mergui. The accounts given by old travellers of the wealth, population, and trade of Tenasserim seem incredible, as there are no traces of ancient greatness, and a few miles below the town a reef of rocks runs right across the river, over which a moderately sized ship's cutter can hardly pass in April, and at no season a vessel drawing more than 6 feet. It is, however, recorded by General Macleod, a competent authority, that in 1825 the Bombay cruiser *Thetis* sailed up as far as Tenasserim. In 1759, the town was taken by the Burmese conqueror Aloung-bhúra; and some years later, the inhabitants were put to the sword by the Governor. From that time, Tenasserim has been subject to perpetual inroads of the Siamese, and is now an insignificant hamlet. The temperature is very variable, and these sudden changes render the climate unhealthy.

Tenasserim.—River of Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; formed by the junction of two streams of the same name, known as the 'Great' and 'Little' Tenasserim. The Bhan rises in the northern slopes of the hills dividing Mergui from Tavoy, and flows northward for 68 miles; at Met-ta it joins another stream, which has its sources in the extreme north of Tavoy District. The united river, under the name of the Great Tenasserim, proceeds southwards for 230 miles between the Yoma Range and the Myeng-mo-lek-that Mountains. Further on, it receives the waters of the Little Tenasserim, the two continuing to the sea as the Tenasserim. The Little Tenasserim is formed by the union, about 32 miles above Tenasserim, of the Thien-khwon and Nga-won. The Thien-khwon rises in the main range in about lat. 11° 38′ N., and flows through very mountainous country in a general west-north-west direction, with one large bend to the south-west, for about 50 miles to near Tsa-khai village. The Nga-won rises also in the main range in about lat. 11° 14′ N., and runs for 50 miles in a much straighter course than the Thien-khwon, but through very

similar country. The combined stream, under the name of the Little Tenasserim, runs north-north-west for about 40 miles to the Great Tenasserim, on reaching which it has attained a breadth of 118 yards. There are several mouths to the Tenasserim, the two principal ones being separated from each other by Mergui Island. Large boats can ascend as far as Tenasserim town. The banks of the river are at places almost perpendicular, and where its course lies through low lands, its bed is thickly studded with picturesque islands. The channel is in some parts so narrow as to occasion rapids, which can only be passed with difficulty at certain periods. The tide is felt 10 miles above Tenasserim town.

Tendukhera.—Town in Narsinhpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 10′ N., and long. 78° 58′ E. (Thornton), 22 miles north-west of Narsinhpur town, and 35 from the Gádarwára railway station. Pop. (1872), 3034. The iron-mines, 2 miles south-west of the town, leased by the Narbada (Nerbudda) Coal and Iron Company, yield ore of excellent quality. From the employment of charcoal in smelting, the town is free from smoke, and only the ceaseless clink of hammers distinguishes it from the agricultural villages near.

Teng-daw.—Revenue circle in the Mye-dai township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 134 square miles. Products — sesamum, cotton, cutch, and silk. Pop. (1877), 5853; gross revenue, £523.

Tenkarai.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 8° 35′ N., long. 78° 7′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 5629, living in 1848 houses.

Tenkarai (or *Periakulam*).—Headquarters of Periyakulam *táluk*, Madura District, Madras. Lat. 10° 7′ 30″ N., long. 77° 35′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 9613, living in 1568 houses.

Tenkaraikottai (*Tingricotta*).—Village in Salem District, Madras. Lat. 12° 1′ N., long. 78° 28′ E.; pop. (1871), 423, living in 99 houses. A mud fort, commanding one of the entrances to the Báramahál, gave this village some importance in the Mysore wars. In 1768, it changed hands two or three times.

Tenkási. — Headquarters of Tenkási *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras; situated in lat. 8° 57′ 20″ N., and long. 77° 21′ 20″ E., a few miles from Kuttálam. Tenkási was once fortified, but the fortifications were destroyed during the Poligár (Pálegár) war. The place derives its name (the Southern Benares) from its great sanctity. It possesses a fine and much revered temple on the main road to Travancore, and is a busy centre of trade.

Tennali.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 56′ 15″ N., long. 77° 53′ E.; pop. (1871), 7532, living in 2071 houses.

Tennasserim.—Division, revenue circle, township, town, and river in British Burma.—*See* TENASSERIM.

Tepágarh. — Hill range in Chánda District, Central Provinces; forming the highest part of a wild mountain region 2000 feet above sea level, covered with dense forest, and crowned by the old fortress of Tepágarh. Lat. 20° 29′ 20″ N., long. 80° 34′ 20″ E. Its massive ramparts of undressed stone, flanked by bastions, and entered through a winding gateway, have a circuit of over 2 miles; and contain a large tank, with a stone embankment and steps along the water face. This reservoir never fails. It is of fabulous depth, and forms the source of the Tepágarhí, which issues from its western bank, and in the rains becomes a roaring torrent. South of the tank rises an inner fort, with lines like those of the outer work. It contains the ruined palace of the Gond chiefs of Tepágarh. The greatest of the line was a prince named Param Rájá, who held the whole Wairágarh country. Invaded by a large force from Chhatisgarh, he defeated them after a long fight, but in the pursuit he dropped a slipper. A laggard bore it to his Rání; and she, deeming that her husband had fallen, drove her chariot into the lake and so died. When the victorious Rájá heard this, he too drove into the lake; and since then, Tepágarh has been desolate.

Terdál.—Town in Sángli, one of the Southern Marhattá States, Bombay; situated on the right bank of the Kistna river, in lat. 16° 29′ 45″ N., and long. 75° 5′ 30″ E. Pop. (1872), 7716.

Teri.—Feudatory Subdivision of Kohát District, Punjab, occupying the whole southern portion of the District. Area, 1214 square miles; pop. (1868), 65,805; number of villages, 197. Inhabited by Khataks, whose chieftain, Khwája Muhammad Khán, K.C.S.I., Nawáb of Teri, holds the whole Subdivision in *jágír*. The country, though hilly, is fairly well cultivated. The Khataks are a fine race, who make excellent soldiers; and though naturally wild and impatient of control, they have settled down under British rule into peaceable agriculturists and carriers.

Teri.—Town in Kohát District, Punjab, and headquarters of the Teri Subdivision; situated in lat. 33° 19′ N., and long. 71° 7′ E., on the left bank of the Teri Toi river. Residence of the Nawáb of Teri, *jágírdár* of the Subdivision. Crowns a high round elevation, overlooking the river, and contains 1100 houses, 11 mosques, and a few shops, all of which rise in tiers up the sides of the mound. The *bázár* occupies the centre of the town. Chief's palace and court, numerous guest-houses, dispensary, police station.

Teri.—Native State in Bundelkhand, Central India.—*See* ORCHHA.

Teri Toi. — River in Kohát District, Punjab; formed by the junction of two streams, which rise on the eastern border of Upper Miranzái, and unite about 10 miles due west of Teri town. Thence, the river flows eastward through a very narrow valley, hemmed in by hills which descend to its banks, until it joins the Indus, in lat. 33° 17′ N., long. 71° 44′ E., 12 miles above Mokhad. The surrounding hills

belong to the salt-bearing range of Kohát, and contain the mines of MALGIN, JATTA, NARRI, BAHADUR KHEL, and KHARRAK.

Terwára. — Native State in the Superintendency of Pálanpur, Bombay; bounded on all sides by States under the Pálanpur Superintendency—Diodar on the north, Kánkrej on the east, Rádhanpur on the south, and Bhábhar on the west. Area, 100 square miles; pop. (1872), 7338. The country is flat and open, and the soil sandy and occasionally black. Only one harvest is reaped in the year, and that of common grains. Water is found from 30 to 75 feet below the surface; towards the north it is brackish. From April to June the heat is excessive, and fever prevails. This territory formerly belonged to the Nawáb of Rádhanpur, having been wrested from the Wághela Rájputs by Nawáb Kamál-ud-dín Khán, about 1715. The family now in possession of Terwára originally came from Sind. From the first, they appear to have attached themselves to the Nawáb of Rádhanpur, serving as horsemen. The State was confirmed to Baluch Khán, the father of the present chief, in 1822; the Nawáb of Rádhanpur having failed to attend to disprove the claim before the Political Superintendent of Pálanpur. The present (1876-77) chief, Thákur Nathu Khán, a Baluch Muhammadan, is forty-seven years of age. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £1200.

Terwára.—Principal town of Terwára State, in Pálanpur Superintendency, Bombay; and the residence of the chief. Lat. 24° 3′ 30″ N., long. 71° 43′ 30″ E.

Tezpur.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Darrang District, Assam; situated in lat. 26° 37′ 15″ N., and long. 92° 53′ 5″ E., on the north or right bank of the Brahmaputra, near the confluence of the Bhairavi. Pop. (1872), 2319. The town is built on a plain, between two low ranges of hills, 278 feet above sea level. In recent years, the character of the houses and the sanitary condition of the town have been greatly improved. The houses of the European residents are built upon the hills. In the native quarter, many masonry buildings have recently been erected with roofs of tile or corrugated iron, superseding the old thatched wooden huts. There are the usual civil offices, including a jail, an English school, and a charitable dispensary. Around the court-house are now lying many carved stones and pillars, which show that Tezpur was the site of an important city in prehistoric times. According to local tradition, it was the scene of the mythical battle between Bán Rájá and the god Krishna, described in the poem of the *Prem Ságar*. In the neighbourhood are many ruins of Hindu temples—massive granite stones and fine sculptures—now buried in dense jungle and forgotten by the present inhabitants. All these temples appear to have been dedicated to Siva, and to have been deliberately overthrown by the iconoclastic hand of Muhammadans. Tezpur is

an important seat of trade, where the river steamers touch to take on board tea, and to leave stores of various kinds to be distributed among the neighbouring tea-gardens.

Tha-boung.—Township in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; extending across the Arakan Mountains to the sea-coast on the west. The whole of the central, and the greater part of the western, portion is mountainous and forest-clad. Chief streams—the Nga-won and Bho-daw. The township comprises 14 revenue circles, of which Kweng-hla and Keng-lat are the most fertile. Pop. (1878), 29,391; gross revenue, £7832. Headquarters at Tha-boung, a village with 604 inhabitants.

Tha-boung.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name, Bassein District, British Burma. Bounded on the south-east by the Nga-won river. The country on the north-west is mountainous and forest-clad, and such regular cultivation as exists is found near the Nga-won river, and immediately around the villages. Pop. (1878), 2404; gross revenue, £548.

Tha-bye-hla.—Revenue circle formerly in the old Mye-nú township, but now joined to Re-gyí, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 90 square miles, of which about 10 are under cultivation. Situated on the right bank of the Da-ga. Pop. (1878), 8100, extensively engaged in fishing; gross revenue, £1885.

Tha-bye-hla.—Village in the Kyún-pyaw township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the western bank of the river Da-ga. Pop. (1877), 2304.

Tha-bye-poung-gyí.—Revenue circle in the Poung-day township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 2783; gross revenue, £511.

Tha-byú.—Revenue circle in the Donabyú township of Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 70 square miles; pop. (1877), 5728; gross revenue, £2047.

Tha-ga-ra.—Township of Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. In the west, the country is crossed by numerous mountain spurs, and clothed with dense forests of teak, *pyeng-ma*, *sha*, *eng*, etc. On the east, a narrow strip of level plain, partly cultivated with rice, is intersected by numerous fair-weather cart-tracks. This township comprises 6 revenue circles. Headquarters at Pie-tú. Pop. (1878), 13,018; gross revenue, £1409.

Tha-hpan-khyo.—Revenue circle in the Poung-day township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1878), 2413; gross revenue, £507. Chief village, Tha-hpan-khyo.

Tha-htún.—Township in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Running northwards is a range of hills, a continuation of the Martaban Mountains, which attains its greatest altitude

near Tha-htún town. East of this line of hills, a narrow strip of forest-clad and but slightly cultivated country is closed in on the east by the Kyouk-tsa-rit river, and lower down by the Bheng-laing, which is formed by the junction of the Kyouk-tsa-rit and Dún-tha-mie. Westward to the Bhí-leng stretch extensive plains, partially under rice, but liable to inundation, and therefore to a great extent uncultivable. These floods are due partly to the spill of the Bhí-leng; but an embankment now affords some protection to the surrounding plain. More defences, however, are needed, and the outlet channels require improving. The Tha-htún river flows almost parallel to the hills, and at no great distance from their western side. This township is divided into 5 revenue circles; population (1877), 21,955; gross revenue, £5410.

Tha-htún.—Revenue circle in the Tha-htún township of Amherst District, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 3650; land revenue, £596, and capitation tax, £752.

Tha-htún.—Town in Amherst District, and headquarters of the township of the same name, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 3126. Now of little importance, but one of the earliest places mentioned in Talaing history. Some centuries before Christ, it was the capital of an independent kingdom. According to native historians, the city was founded in the 17th century B.C., but its history is involved in obscurity. It was subsequently superseded by Pegu, which was captured by A-naw-ra-hta, King of Burma, in the 10th century. The taking of Tha-htún is described at length in the Burmese chronicles. The town contains several pagodas, but most of these are mutilated or in ruins.

Thai-gan.—Revenue circle in the Ra-thai-doung township of Akyab District, Arakan, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 6564; gross revenue, £2250.

Thákeswárí.—Temple upon an isolated hill in Goálpára District, Assam; dedicated to the goddess Durgá. Its construction indicates great engineering skill in the architect. It is frequented by pilgrims from all parts of India, especially by Sanyásís or religious mendicants. The hill is tenanted by a colony of monkeys, of whom two, under the name of king and queen, are held peculiarly sacred.

Tha-khwot-peng (or *Bassein*).—Tidal creek in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It forms a channel between the Rangoon and the China Bakír or To rivers, the entrance on the side of the former being about 10 miles from its mouth. Thence the Tha-khwot-peng follows a south-south-west course, and enters the To about 2½ miles from the sea. The direct distance between its mouths is 19 miles; its length, 25 miles. During the rainy season, the creek has a steady current downwards, but for the rest of the year it is affected by the tide. Its depth is about 2 fathoms at low water; but the entrance

from the Rangoon river is so obstructed by shoals that steamers have to wait for about half-flood before they can pass up. In the dry season, the Tha-khwot-peng is the only practicable creek between Rangoon and the Irawadi for steamers and large boats. The banks are steep, muddy, and covered with low forest.

Thákuráni.—One of the principal mountain peaks in Orissa; situated in the State of Keunjhar, in lat. 22° 6′ 5″ N., and long. 85° 28′ 30″ E. Height, 3003 feet above sea level.

Thákurdwára.—Northern *tahsíl* of Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a submontane tract, lying just below the forest-covered *tarái.* Area, 236 square miles, of which 149 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 112,913; land revenue, £18,477; total Government revenue, £18,716; rental paid by cultivators, £30,714; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 5⅜d.

Thákurpukur.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, south of Barsiá. Chapel and school belonging to the Church Missionary Society. The Diamond Harbour Canal extends from Thákurpukur to Kholákháli, a distance of 23 miles.

Thákurtolá.—Chiefship on the north-west border of Ráipur District, Central Provinces; comprising formerly 24, but now 77 villages, some villages above the Gháts having been transferred from Sáletekri, when the entire charge of the Gháts was made over to Thákurtolá. The chiefship now extends to the Banjar river. Below the Gháts, the country is hilly; above them, flat and well watered. It has fine forests of *bíje-sál*, *hardú*, *áín*, and *dhaura;* and the cultivated area produces cotton, *kodo*, and rice. The chief is a Gond. Thákurtolá town is situated in lat. 21° 39′ N., and long. 81° E.

Thal.—Port in Kolába District, Bombay; situated in lat. 18° 40′ 20″ N., and long. 72° 55′ 55″ E., on the coast, 2 miles north of Alíbágh. Average annual value of trade during the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £2910, and exports, £5731.

Tha-le-dan.—River in the Pa-doung township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It falls into the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) at the village of Tha-le-dan, from which it takes its name, and is formed by the junction of two streams—the North and the South Tha-le-dan. The first of these rises in the Arakan range, and flows with a winding course through the hills, receiving the waters of several mountain torrents; and about 4 or 5 miles from the Irawadi, it enters a comparatively level and cultivated tract. The North Tha-le-dan is navigable during the rains for a short distance, and traverses a country rich in teak and other forest timber; its drainage basin is about 210 square miles. The South Tha-le-dan, which is impracticable for boats, rises also in the Arakan Mountains considerably to the south of the source of the North Tha-le-dan, and flows in a north-easterly direction to join

that river. Timber is floated down it to Ma-toung village, and thence by the North Tha-le-dan to the Irawadi.

Thalghát (*Kásáraghát*).—Pass in the Sahyádri Hills, Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay; situated in lat. 19° 43′ N., and long. 73° 30′ E., 65 miles north-east by north of Bombay city. The Thalghát Pass is, for purposes of trade, one of the most important in the range of the Sahyádri Hills. It is traversed by two lines of communication, road and rail. The road is the main line between Bombay and Agra. The railway is the north-eastern branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. The summit of the railway incline is 1912 feet above the level of the sea; the maximum gradient is 1 in 37; and the extreme curvature, 17 chains radius.

Tha-loung-byeng.—Revenue circle in the Meng-wa township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2519; gross revenue, £707.

Tha-lú-doung.—Revenue circle in Ramrí Island, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 15 square miles; pop. (1877), 3261. Chief manufactures—indigo, and pots for sugar and salt boiling. Gross revenue (1877), £792.

Tha-man-de-wa.—Revenue circle in the Nga-pú-taw township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A broken tract, consisting of low hills reaching back to the Arakan Yomas, and covered with bamboo and tree forest. The south-eastern part includes Long Island, which divides the Bassein river into two channels. Only the eastern of these is navigable by large vessels, and in this are some formidable rocks. The Myit-tara is the sole river of importance in the circle. Limestone is quarried in the villages of Tha-man-de-wa and Kyouk-theng-bhaw. Pop. (1878), 2869; gross revenue, £1045.

Tham-ban-deng.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 1952; gross revenue, £421.

Tham-bha-ra.—Revenue circle in the Ka-ma township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 13 square miles; pop. (1877), 2690; gross revenue, £674. In 1858, Re-nan-tha, and in 1872, O-shit-gún, were incorporated with this circle.

Tham-bhú-la.—Revenue circle in the Mye-dai township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 200 square miles; pop. (1877), 11,034; gross revenue, £1130. Products—rice, sesamum, cotton, maize, plantains, and cutch. A small force of frontier police is now stationed in the village of Tham-bhú-la. For some years after the annexation, a detachment of troops from Thayet-myo was quartered here, subsequently relieved by a local battalion; but the military were finally withdrawn in 1861.

Tha-mí-hla. — Revenue circle in the U-rí-toung (Oo-ree-toung)

township of Akyab District, Arakan, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 4053; gross revenue, £761.

Tha-mí-hla-byeng.—Revenue circle in the Ra-thai-doung township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 3012; gross revenue, £1093.

Thammapatti (*Thummapatty*).—Town in Salem District, Madras; situated in lat. 11° 34′ 40″ N., and long. 78° 19′ 45″ E., at the foot of the Kollamalai Hills, on the river Smathanati. Pop. (1871), 5314, dwelling in 1052 houses. Iron-smelting industry.

Thán.—Village in Káthiáwár, Bombay; situated to the north of the main road from Wadhwán to Rájkot, 12 or 14 miles north-west of Muli. It is interesting for its traditions rather than for the few antiquarian remains now existing. The following description of the place is condensed from an account supplied to Mr. Burgess by Major J. W. Watson for the *Archæological Survey of Western India*:—

Thán is one of the most ancient places in India, and the whole of the neighbourhood is holy ground. Thán itself derives its name from the Sanskrit *sthán*, 'a place,' as though it were *the* place, hallowed above all others by the residence of devout sages, by the magnificence of its city, and by its propinquity to famous shrines, such as that of Trineteswara, now called Tarnetar, the famous temple of the Sun at Kandola, and those of the Snake-brethren Vásukí and Banduk, now known as Wásangjí and Bándiá Beli respectively.

Thán is situated in the part of the Province of Suráshtra known as the Deva Panchál—so called, it is said, from having been the native country of Draupadí, the wife of the five Pándava brethren, from which circumstance she was called Pancháli; and because it is peculiarly sacred, it is called the Deva Panchál. Nor is Thán famous in local tradition only. One of the chapters of the *Skanda Purána* is devoted to Trineteswara and the neighbourhood, and this chapter is vulgarly called the *Thán Purána* or *Tarnetar Máhátmya*. Here we learn that the first temple to the Sun was built by Rájá Mándhátá in the Satya Yug. The city is said then to have covered many square miles, and to have contained a population of 36,000 Bráhmans, 52,000 Vaisyas, 72,000 Kshattriyas, and 90,000 Súdras—in all, 250,000 souls. Thán was visited also by Krishna and his consort Lakshmí, who bathed in the two tanks near the town, whence one has been called Pritam, a contraction from *Priyatam*, 'the beloved,' after Krishna—so named as being the beloved of the Gopís; and the other Kamala, after Lakshmí, who from her beauty was supposed to resemble the *kamala* or lotus-blossom. The central fortress was called Kandola, and here was the celebrated temple of the Sun. Immediately opposite to Kandola is another hill, with a fort called in more recent times Songadh; and another large suburb was named Mándvá. Within a few

miles was the shrine of the three-eyed god Trineteswara, one of the appellations of Siva; and close to this, the celebrated *kund*, by bathing in which pool all sins were washed away. This *kund* was called, therefore, the Pápnásnu or 'sin-expelling,' as the forest in which it was situated was called the Pápapnod-nuvana or the Forest of the Sin-destroyer. Close to Thán are the Mándhav Hills, distinguished by this name from the rest of the Tángá range, of which they form a part; and the remains of Mándhavgadh, such as they are, may be seen close to the shrine of Bándiá Beli, the modern name of Banduk, one of the famed Snake-brethren. An account of the remains at present existing, and a legendary history of the snake-shrines, will be found in Mr. Burgess' *Archæological Survey of Western India.*

Thána (*Tanna*).—A British District in the Bombay Presidency, lying between 18° 47′ and 20° 23′ N. lat., and between 72° 39′ and 73° 52′ E. long. Area, 4052 square miles; pop. (1872), 847,424. Tanna District is bounded on the north by the Portuguese territory of Damán and by Surat District; on the east by the Districts of Násik, Ahmednagar, and Poona; on the south by Kolába District; and on the west by the Arabian Sea.

Physical Aspects.—Thána consists of a District strip of low land intersected by hilly tracts, rising to elevations varying from 100 to 2500 feet. Towards the east and north-east, the country is elevated, covered with trees, and but scantily cultivated. Near the coast, the land is low, and, where free from inundation, fertile. North of the Vaitarani river, the coast gradually gets more flat, and the water more shallow, while the hills also recede; so that, a little north of the great marsh of Dábánu, the general aspect resembles Guzerat rather than the Konkan, while the language also begins to change from Marathí to Guzeratí. Along the whole line of coast the soil is fertile, and the villages are exceedingly populous. In the north-east, the hills are covered with wood and the valleys very partially cultivated; the villages are seldom more than scattered hamlets of huts, and the population consists mainly of uncivilised aboriginal tribes, many of whom still wander from place to place as they find land or water to suit their fancy. The inland country south of the Vaitarani river is generally fertile, and in many parts flourishing. Salt marshes are an important feature of this part of the District; and in them the reclamation of land for cultivation is going on steadily, though slowly. The Vaitarani, navigable to a distance of about 20 miles from its mouth, is the only considerable river. Though deep and rapid in the rains, the other rivers are of little consequence; shallow in the cold weather, and in the hot season almost dry. Except the Bassein creek, which separates the island of Salsette from the mainland, and is navigable throughout its whole length, most of the inlets of the sea, though at

their mouths broad and deep, within 10 miles of the coast become shallow water-courses. There are no natural lakes; but the Vehar reservoir, about 15 miles from Bombay, between Coorla and Thána, constructed as a storage lake for the supply of water to Bombay city, covers an area of about 1400 acres. Along the coast, the water supply is abundant, and, though brackish, the water is not unwholesome. In the inland parts, water can be had for the digging; but the people are so poor that wells are few, and the supply of water scanty. There were in 1873-74, 626 wells with steps, 9718 wells without steps, 1466 ponds, and 57 dams. Ranges of hills are found all over the District. Among the most considerable are those running through Salsette from north to south, the Matherán range, the Damán range, in which is Tungár, and the range running from north to south between the Vaitarani and the Bassein creek. Besides, there are several more or less isolated hills, many of them in former times forts of strength and celebrity. The two most striking in appearance are Máhulí and Malangarh. Except in alluvial valleys, the District consists almost entirely of the Deccan trap and its associate rocks. Limestone and various stones for building purposes are also found. Palm-trees grow in abundance near the coast, and stunted date-trees are seen everywhere. The forests of the District, which supply Bombay with a large quantity of firewood, yielded during the year 1876-77 a net revenue of £11,975. The timber trade is chiefly in the hands of Christians of Bassein, Musalmáns, and Pársís. Sea-fishery is very productive, so that the fishing castes are able to cure and export to a large extent.

History.—The territory comprised in the District of Thána formed part of the dominions of the Peshwá, annexed by the Bombay Government in 1818, on the overthrow of Bájí Ráo. (For further information on the history of the District, see BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.)

Population.—The total population of Thána District (according to the Census of 1872) was 847,424 persons, residing in 2264 villages and 148,161 houses; the average density of the population being 209 per square mile. Of the total population, 439,176 were males and 408,248 were females; proportion of males, 51·82 per cent. There were 273,093 males and 250,622 females above the age of 12 years; total adults, 523,715, or 61·80 per cent. of the population. Out of the total population of 847,424, there were 765,886 Hindus, 38,835 Musalmáns, 3188 Pársís, 746 Jews, 1 Síkh, 37,029 Christians, and 1739 'others.' The Hindu castes are the same as in KOLABA DISTRICT. The Christians of Salsette and Bassein, numbering about 35,000, deserve special notice. They are the descendants of the converts of St. Francis Xavier and his successors in the 16th century. As the original converts were not obliged to give up caste distinctions, their descendants have retained many of them, and a Thána Christian

can still tell to what caste his family belonged before conversion. Indeed, Christians of the Bhandári, Kumbi, and Koti castes commonly call themselves Christian Bhandáris, Kumbis, or Kotis, as the case may be; and Christians belonging to different castes do not, as a rule, intermarry, though the restriction in this respect is not so rigid as among Hindus. All of them have Portuguese names; and show their attachment to the Christian religion by contributing very largely to their churches, and to the support of their priests. All Christian villages on the coast, and a good number inland, have their churches; and where a congregation is not large enough to keep a resident priest, one priest serves two or three churches. At many of the Salsette churches annual fairs or festivals are held, to which the Christians flock in great numbers; and many Hindus and Pársís also attend, as some of the shrines have a reputation for working cures, which is not confined to Christians, and which obtains for them many heathen offerings. The upper classes dress as Europeans, the lower generally with jacket and short drawers of coloured cotton, and a red cloth cap; the women of the lower classes, when they appear at church, wear a voluminous white shawl or mantle. Their houses are generally tiled, and often two-storied, and frequently washed in colours outside. Many of these Christians are employed as clerks and shopmen in Bombay; but they pride themselves on differing from their brethren of Goa in refusing to enter household service. They live by cultivation, fishing, toddy-drawing, and every other employment open to similar classes of Hindus. A few members of the best families enter the priesthood. In Salsette very many, and in Bassein a few, of the State grants to village head-men are held by Christians.

Agriculture.—Agriculture supports 540,459 persons, or 63·77 per cent. of the entire population. The agricultural stock in State villages amounted in 1876-77 to 85,935 ploughs, 26,260 carts, 148,284 bullocks, 119,102 cows, 86,018 buffaloes, 2468 horses, 41,743 sheep and goats, and 61 asses. Out of 1,078,067 acres, the total area of cultivable land, 1,012,190 acres, or 93·88 per cent., were taken up for cultivation in 1876-77. Of this area, 485,426 acres were fallow or under grass. Of the remaining 526,764 acres under actual cultivation (3265 acres of which were twice cropped), grain crops occupied 455,412 acres, or 86·45 per cent.; pulses, 41,774, or 7·93 per cent.; oil-seeds, 22,833, or 4·33 per cent.; fibres, 3262, or 0·62 per cent.; and miscellaneous crops, 6748, or 1·28 per cent. Rice, by far the most important grain crop, occupied 340,041 acres, or 64·55 per cent. of the total area under cultivation; it is the chief article of export. Sugar-cane is cultivated in some places. Beside the regular survey tenure, common to the Bombay Presidency, several peculiar tenures of land exist in Thána. A considerable number of villages, chiefly in the Salsette Subdivision, are

held on the *khoti* tenure. The *khots*, who are leaseholders of a certain number of villages, obtained their land from the British Government at an early period of its rule. Another kind of leasehold tenure, known as *isáfat*, is found in most parts of the District. An *isáfat* village is a farm or lease formerly resumable at pleasure, though not, of course, so under the British Government, and held always on the condition of paying the full assessment, according to the rates of the District. Other lands, lying either on the coast or along the larger creeks, are held on the *shilotri* tenure. *Shilotri* lands are those that have been reclaimed from the sea and embanked, and the permanence of which is dependent on the embankments being kept up. These reclamations are known as *khárs*. The tenure is of two sorts. First, *shilotri* proper, under which the *khár* belongs to the person by whom it was reclaimed. The *shilotidárs* are considered to have a proprietary right; they let out these lands at will, and according to old custom levy a *maund* of rice per *bighá*, in addition to the assessment for the repair of the outer embankments. The second class of *shilotri* lands are those in which Government either reclaimed the *khárs* in the first instance, or subsequently became possessed of them by lapse. Except that they pay an extra rate, which is spent in repairing the embankments, the cultivators of these *khárs* hold their land on the same conditions as the regular survey tenants.

Communications.—Along the sea-coast, and up the creeks, sailing vessels and canoes form a ready means of communication. In three directions the District is crossed by railways. To the north, the line of the Baroda Railway skirts the coast for a total distance of 100 miles. East and west, the Great Indian Peninsula Railway runs for 25 miles, and then dividing, runs north-east 42 miles and south-east 40 miles. In the north and east of the District there are no made roads. But Salsette is well supplied with roads, and two main lines run eastward, the Agra road across the Thal Pass to Násik, and the Poona road by way of the Bor Pass.

Commerce and Trade.—The chief articles of export are rice, salt, wood, lime, and dry fish. Cloth, grain, tobacco, cocoa-nuts, sugar, and molasses form the chief articles of import. In 1876-77, the total value of the sea-borne trade at the twenty-eight ports in Thána District was £1,893,812, of which £1,417,788 were exports, and £476,024 imports. For the same year, the railway traffic returns show, for the 14 stations along the two branches of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 76,915 tons of export, and 13,886 tons of import; and for the 16 stations on the Baroda line, 15,001 tons of import, and 38,574 tons of export. For the road traffic, no details are available. In spite of railway competition, it is said that a considerable through traffic is still kept up along the Agra and Poona roads. Besides the ordinary

brass work and pottery, the chief industries of the District are hand-loom-weaving by Portuguese or native Christians, and Musalmáns of silk and cotton, in Thána and Bhiwandi, and spinning and weaving of cotton in the steam factories at Kurla (Coorla), 8 miles east of Bombay city. Of other industries, there are a dyeing factory at Wásind, distilleries and chemical factories at Chembur and Uran, and a toddy factory at Dhárávi. The money-lenders are chiefly Banias of the class known as Márwáris, Bráhmans, and village head-men. Rates of interest vary from 12 to 25 per cent. per annum. Labourers earn from 3d. to 9d. a day, bricklayers and carpenters from 1s. to 2s. The current prices per cwt. of the chief articles of food during 1876 were—for rice, 9s. 8¾d.; wheat, 9s. 8¾d.; and *dhál*, 10s. 2d.

Administration.—The total revenue raised in 1876-77 under all heads, imperial, local, and municipal, amounted to £254,163, or on a population of 847,424 an incidence per head of 5s. 11¾d. The land tax forms the principal source of revenue, yielding £141,605. The other principal items are stamps, excise, forest, and local funds. The District local funds created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education yielded a total of £27,929. There are 9 municipalities, containing an aggregate population of 78,317 persons. Their receipts amounted to £7116, and the incidence of taxation varied from 4½d. to 2s. 3d. per head. The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 5 Assistants (of whom 3 are covenanted civilians), and in judicial matters to a Judge. For the settlement of civil disputes there are 7 courts, and the number of suits decided was 6969. Twenty-seven officers share the administration of criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police consisted of 808 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 1091 persons of the population and to every 5·6 square miles of the area. The total cost was £12,304, equal to £3, 0s. 8¾d. per square mile of area and 3⅜d. per head of population. The number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 3548, being 1 person to every 238 of the population. There is one jail in the District. Education has widely spread of late years. In 1855-56, there were only 16 schools, attended by 1213 pupils. In 1876-77, there were 154 schools, attended by 7565 pupils, or on an average 1 school for every 14 villages. There is one library, and two vernacular newspapers were published in 1876-77.

Medical Aspects.—The average annual rainfall during the five years ending with 1876 was 94 inches. The prevailing disease is fever, the climate being exceedingly moist for fully half the year. Eleven dispensaries afforded medical relief in 1876-77 to 299 in-door and 59,907 out-door patients; and 20,066 persons were vaccinated. Vital statistics showed a reported death-rate of 18·66 per thousand.

Thána (*Tanna*).—Chief town of Thána District, Bombay, and a

station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 20 miles north-east of Bombay city; lies in lat. 19° 11′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 1′ 30″ E., and contains (1872) a population of 14,299. Thána is a municipal town, with an income of £1516. Besides being a railway station, it is also a port; and the average annual value of sea trade is returned at £47,018 of import and £11,479 of export. The railway traffic returns for 1876 show that 416,688 passengers and 8647 tons of goods, in all, were carried from and to Thána station. This town being about an hour's journey from Bombay, many Government officials, as also persons of various other callings, are enabled to choose Thána as their place of residence, attending to their duties at Bombay during the day. Civil hospital and post office.

Thána.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated 5 miles north-west of Unao town. Founded by Thán Sinh and Púran Sinh, Chauhán Thákurs of Máinpuri in Akbar's time. Fort constructed by Thán Sinh; school; one small daily and two large weekly markets. Pop. (1869), 2994, namely, 128 Muhammadans, 149 Bráhmans, 415 Kshatriyas, 53 Pásís, 179 Ahírs, and 2070 other tribes. Three masonry and 388 mud-walled houses; mosque.

Tháná Bháwán.—Ancient but decaying town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 35′ N., and long. 77° 27′ 40″ E., on a raised site, near the lowlands of the Krishna Nadi; distant from Muzaffarnagar town 18 miles north-west. Pop. (1872), 7486, consisting of 3858 Hindus and 3628 Muhammadans. Formerly a large town, but the population has steadily decreased since the opening of new lines of commerce. Many ruined houses and decayed Musalmán families. Known under Akbar as Thána Bhúm, but derives its present name from a temple to Bháwáni Devi, still much frequented by Hindu pilgrims. Centre of disaffection during the Mutiny of 1857, when the Shaikhzadáhs, headed by their Kází, Mahbúb Alí Khán, and his nephew, Inayat Alí, broke into open rebellion. Amongst other daring feats, they captured the Shámli *tahsíl*, and massacred in cold blood the 113 men who defended it (14th September 1857). On the restoration of order, the Shaikhzádahs received due punishment, and the wall of the town and eight gates were levelled to the ground. First-class police station; branch post office.

Thandiání.—Small hill sanatorium in Hazára District, Punjab. Lat. 34° 15′ N., long. 73° 18′ E. Established for the convenience of officers stationed at the neighbouring post of Abbottábád. Contains some European houses and a small *bázár*.

Thaneswar.—Sacred town and place of Hindu pilgrimage in Umballa (Ambála) District, Punjab; situated on the bank of the river SARASWATI (Sarsuti), in lat. 29° 58′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 52′ E.; 25 miles south of Ambála. Pop. (1868), 7929, consisting of 5464 Hindus,

2188 Muhammadans, and 277 Síkhs. One of the oldest and most famous towns in India, connected with the legends of the *Mahábhárata* and the exploits of the Pándava brethren. Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, in the 7th century A.D., mentions Thaneswar as the capital of a separate kingdom, 1167 miles in circuit. Sacked and taken by Mahmúd of Ghazní in 1011. On the rise of the Sikh power, Thaneswar fell into the hands of Mith Sinh, who left his territories to his nephews. On the extinction of the family in 1850, the town lapsed to the British Government, and became for a while the headquarters of a District. Since the removal of the civil station, however, Thaneswar has rapidly declined in prosperity, and is fast falling into ruins. The religious gatherings still attract large numbers of pilgrims; but the sanitary arrangements introduced by the British authorities to prevent the spread of disease have largely interfered with the popularity of the festivals. The present town crowns the summit of an ancient mound, near which rises an old and ruined fort, 1200 feet square at the top; while a suburb covers the summit of a second mound to the west. The sacred lake, a pool of the Saraswati (Sarsuti), forms an oblong sheet of water, 3546 feet in length and 1900 feet in breadth. During eclipses of the moon, the waters of all other tanks are believed to visit this tank at Thaneswar; so that he who then bathes in the assembled water obtains the concentrated merit of all possible ablutions. The country for many miles around is holy ground, and popular estimate sets down the number of sacred sites connected with the Kauravas and Pándavas at 360. At all seasons of the year, a continuous stream of pilgrims pours towards the shrines of Thaneswar and the Kurukshetra. The number of visitors at the great festival formerly amounted to 500,000, but had dwindled away in 1872 to 30,000. Trade has declined since the construction of the Grand Trunk Road, which leaves Thaneswar several miles to the west, though it lay on the route of the old Mughal road, and then formed an entrepôt of local traffic. The principal inhabitants are now Hindu priests, who live upon the contributions of the pilgrims. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £342, or 11⅜d. per head of population (7114) within municipal limits.

Than-htoung.—Revenue circle in the Kú-la-dan township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1879), 4809; gross revenue, £1169.

Than-htoung.—Revenue circle in Ramrí Island, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 38 square miles; pop. (1877), 2677; gross revenue, £663.

Than-lyeng.—Subdivision, township, and town of Rangoon District, British Burma.—*See* SYRIAM.

Than-lyeng-myoma.—Revenue circle in the Than-lyeng or Syriam

township of Rangoon District, Pegu, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 4484; gross revenue, £2178.

Tha-nwon-tha-naw.—Revenue circle in the Henzada township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The area under rice is 2505 acres. Pop. (1878), 2038; gross revenue, £635.

Thara (*Tara*).—State in Pálanpur District, Bombay.—*See* KANKREJ.

Tharád.—Chief town of the State of Tharád and Morwára, Bombay. Lat. 24° 23′ 10″ N., long. 71° 37′ E.

Tharád and Morwára.—Native State in the Political Superintendency of Pálanpur, Bombay. It extends from north to south about 35 miles, and from east to west about 25 miles. The State is situated in Northern Guzerat, on the frontier of Rájputána; and is bounded on the north by the Márwár District of Sáchor, on the east by Pálanpur State, on the south by Bhábhar and Terwára States, and on the west by Wáo State. The area is estimated at 644 square miles; and the population (1872) was returned at 51,105, occupying 123 villages. The country is flat and bare. Except a few fields of black loam found near the villages, the soil is barren and sandy. Only the common grains are grown; and as water is not found nearer the surface than from 75 to 120 feet, there is no irrigation. From April to June, the heat is excessive. The prevailing disease is fever. The high-road from Páli in Márwár *viâ* Sirohi to the ports of Dholera and Mándvi passes through the State. In 1819, harassed by the inroads of Khosas and other plunderers, the Tharád chief sought the help of the British Government. The present (1876-77) chief of Tharád and Morwára is named Thákur Khengarsinh, a Rájput of the Waghela clan. He lives at Tharád, and administers his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £8500; and maintains a retinue of 50 horse and 30 foot. In matters of succession, the rule of primogeniture obtains. There is 1 school, with 88 pupils.

Tha-raing.—Revenue circle in the Donabyú township of Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 8782; gross revenue, £2850.

Thar and Párkar.—A British District in the east of Sind, Bombay, lying between 24° 13′ and 26° 15′ N. lat., and between 68° 51′ and 71° 8′ E. long. Area, 12,729 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 180,761. It is bounded on the north by Khairpur State; on the east by the States of Jáisalmír, Maláni, Jodhpur, and Pálanpur; on the south by the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh); and on the west by Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District. The administrative headquarters of the District are at UMARKOT.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Thar and Párkar may be divided into two portions—the one called the 'Pat,' or plain of the Eastern Nára, including the Umarkot Subdivision; and the other the 'Thar,'

or desert. The former, in its western part, rises from 50 to 100 feet above the level of the Sind plain, and some of the sandhills in it may be 100 feet higher, but they are not so elevated as in the Thar. Formerly this part of the District exhibited a dry and arid appearance, owing to the insufficient supply of water in the Nára; but since the construction of the Rohri supply channel, and the consequent additional flow of water brought down by it, the valley of the Nára is now covered with jungle and marsh. Through this part of the District flow the Eastern Nára and the Mithrau Canals—the former a natural channel, greatly improved of late years, with its branches, the Chor and Thar Canals; the latter an artificial stream running to the westward of the Nára, but in some degree parallel to it for a distance of about 80 miles. The Thar, or desert portion of the District, consists of a tract of sandhills, which present the appearance of waves, running north-east and south-west; these hills become higher towards the west, and are composed of a fine but slightly coherent sand. There are no canals or rivers of any kind in the Thar. To the south-east, again, of the Thar is the Párkar tract, which differs from the former in possessing hill ranges of hard rock, the highest being not more than 350 feet above the surrounding level. There are sandhills also in this portion of the District; but towards the east they become less elevated, and merge at last into a large open plain of stiff clay, through which, in places, limestone occasionally crops out. The peninsula of Párkar, which in its extreme south-eastern direction juts out into the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh), is flat and level, except in the immediate vicinity of the town of Nagar Párkar, where there is an extensive area of elevated land known as the Kárunjhar Hills, composed mostly of syenite rock. In many parts of the District, beds of rivers long dried up are found intersecting the arid tract of the Thar; and these would seem to show that the waters of the Indus, or of some of its branches, once flowed through it, fertilizing what is now a wilderness, and finding their way to the sea either by one of the eastern mouths, or through the Rann, or great salt marsh of Cutch. Great quantities of bricks and pottery have also been found in various places scattered over the surface.

The water system of the District, which is confined solely to that part watered by the Nára, there being no canals or rivers in Thar and Párkar proper, comprises, in the first place, the Eastern Nára, already described as being a natural channel, and most probably at some remote period the outlet to the sea of the waters of some great river like the Indus, together with its branches the Thar, Chor, and Umarkot. Secondly, the Mithrau Canal, commenced in 1858-59, in order to irrigate the western or more elevated portions of this District, which the Nára is unable to reach. It is upwards of 80 miles in length (or with its branches, 123 miles),

having its head in the Makhi *dandh*. The cost of this canal, when completed, is expected to be between 7 and 8 *lákhs* of rupees; up to 1873-74, it had cost Rs. 738,336 (say £73,833). The Eastern Nára draws its water mainly from the floods in Baháwalpur State. It has its first well-marked and continuous head at Khári, a short distance from the town of Rohri, and, after passing through Khairpur State, enters the Nára valley near the village of Mithrau, from the large Makhi *dandh* previously mentioned. Hence it skirts the sand-hills as far as Sayyid Ghulám Nabí-ka-Got, after which it continues its course to the southward, passing near Nabisar and Nawákot. Before the construction, in 1859, of the Rohri supply channel, which now throws a regular body of water into the Nára, the quantity in this latter stream was mainly dependent upon the strength of the floods or *lets* from Baháwalpur State. Years would sometimes elapse without any water at all finding its way into the Nára, while high floods would, on the other hand, be experienced for a series of seasons. The people on the lower part of the Nára believed, and, indeed, maintain to this day, that the supply was cut off by an artificial *bandh* or dam constructed by Fateh Muhammad Ghorí, a *jágírdár*, in the year 1838; and Captain Rathborne, Collector of Haidarábád (Hyder-ábád), in 1843 made an official report to the same effect. But no one could find the *bandh*, and Captain (now Colonel) Fife, R.E., in 1850 proved that no such *bandh* ever existed. After the opening of the supply channel at Rohri, much of the flood water was expended in filling up the numerous depressions called *dandhs* or *kolábs*, which line the eastern bank of the Nára like a fringe throughout the greater part of its course. They are very deep, and extend some miles into the desert. To prevent this supply from being lost, strong embankments were thrown across the feeding channels leading to the *dandhs*, and the water was thus forced into the plain. It was, however, in a few years found that this annual flooding caused great damage by converting the country into a jungly swamp; and, to correct this, excavations were made in the bed of the Nára itself, so as to facilitate the flow of the water southwards. A series of embankments on the right bank were also erected to arrest the overflow of the water, regular cultivation being made to depend on distributing channels, instead of on flood water, which latter plan, though offering great facilities for raising crops, was, at the same time, both precarious and wasteful. These remedies are still in progress. In the Sánghar *táluk* two canals, the Dimwáh and the Heranwáh, branch off from the Nára; the former has its head in the Makhi *dandh*.

In the Thar portion of the District is a salt lake called the Mokhái, from which large quantities of salt are obtained; but the cost of carriage and scarcity of forage have hitherto prevented its exportation to the

Sind markets. The present system is to levy a duty on salt of 8 *ánnás* per *maund.* In the Párkar tract between the Thar and the Rann, the soil is composed of the débris of syenite rocks, of which the Kárunjhar Hills, in the vicinity of Nagar Párkar, are composed. The wild animals found in the District are the hog, *pharho* or hog-deer, *chinkára*, wolf, jackal, fox, jungle-cat, hare, mungoose, otter, etc. Among birds are *goravas* (bustard), *tilúr*, geese, wildfowl of many varieties, such as the mallard, widgeon, whistling teal, snipe, coot, water-hen, adjutants, pelicans, flamingoes, and various kinds of wading birds. Other birds found are the grey and black partridge, sand-grouse of several varieties, plover and quail, the eagle, vulture, kite, several kinds of hawk, crows, owls, etc. Snakes are very common, especially in the hot season. The wild hog, black partridge, and waterfowl are only met with in the Nára tract. The *gúrkhar* or wild ass frequents the Párkar, and the hyæna and lynx, the Thar. The desert ponies are hardy and well made. Camels and horned cattle are bred extensively in the desert; large herds of the latter are annually driven to Guzerat for sale. The fisheries of the District are confined entirely to the Nára and the *dandhs* fed by it, the fish most commonly caught being the *jerki singára*, *dambhro*, *marko*, *popri*, *gandan*, *goj* (eels), *chitori*, *haili*, *makar*, *patno*, and *kuro.* The yearly revenue derived by Government from the Nára fisheries averages about £400. The number of canals in Thar and Párkar District is 13; total length, 254 miles.

History.—Very little is known of the early history of the District. It is not many years since the desert portion and Párkar were under the exclusive administration of the Political Agent in Cutch (Kachchh). The Soda Rájputs, the upper class of the District, who are said to be descended from Parmar Soda, are supposed to have come into this part of Sind from Ujjain about 1226 A.D., when they quickly displaced the rulers of the country. Other authorities, however, state that they did not conquer the country from the Súmras, the dominant race, before the beginning of the 16th century. The Sodas, in their turn, succumbed to the Kalhoras about 1750 A.D., since which period the District has been subject more or less to Sind. On the fall of the Kalhora dynasty, it came under the domination of the Tálpurs, who built a series of forts in order to overawe the warlike population. In the Mitti and Islámkot tracts, the Tálpurs are said by Raikes to have exacted two-fifths of the produce of the land; but no regular revenue system was introduced till the years 1830 and 1835, when disturbances at once took place. The Mírs sent a large force to reduce the people to submission, and several chiefs were taken prisoners, and not released until they had paid heavy fines. The Thar and Párkar District was for a long time the headquarters of banditti who made plundering excursions into Cutch and other neighbouring Districts.

On the conquest of Sind by the British in 1843, the inhabitants of this District evinced a desire to be placed under Cutch; and with this view the divisions of Baliári, Dipla, Mitti, Islámkot, Singála, Viráwáh, Pitapur, Bojásar, and Párkar were in 1844 made over to that State. Umarkot, Gadra, and other tracts on the Nára became a portion of the Haidarábád Collectorate, or rather formed part of the Deputy Collectorate of Mírpur. All emoluments from revenue-free lands enjoyed by *patels* or head-men, as well as cesses on Hindu marriages, were abolished, and the chiefs were further forbidden to bear arms. In consequence, it would seem, of these prohibitions, the District was in 1846 represented to be in open rebellion; but quiet was soon after restored, and the Soda Rájputs, who appear to have been the prime movers in this disturbance, were called upon by Government to state their grievances, of which the following is a brief outline. They contended for their right of levying a tax of 26½ rupees on every marriage among the Krar Banias, and also a fee of 1 rupee's worth of cloth for enforcing debts due to that caste. They complained that the fields they formerly enjoyed revenue free were either reduced in number or taken away altogether from them, and they maintained that in times of scarcity they were entitled to exemption from all payment of duties on opium and grain. They asserted their right as Sodas to receive food when travelling from Banias without any payment, and that this caste was also bound to supply them with bedsteads and coverlets. They further desired, as formerly, to be permitted to receive a portion of the Umarkot customs. The Government, in reply to this list of grievances, allowed the Sodas, as compensation for the fees derived by them from the Krar Banias, the annual interest at 5 per cent. on the sum of 14,000 rupees, and permitted several of the tribe to hold a certain number of fields revenue free, provided they undertook to cultivate them. They were also granted a share in the Umarkot customs, but the rest of their demands were not complied with. In 1850, the Umarkot and Nára divisions were leased out to Soda *zamíndárs* on a light settlement; and at the end of 1854, the Commissioner of Sind, Mr. (now Sir Bartle) Frere, introduced in the Thar a fixed assessment on a ten years' lease. Before that time, the Government share was fixed annually after an inspection of the fields and an estimate of the crop. In 1856, the desert portion of the District, together with Párkar, which had been administered by the Assistant Political Agent in Cutch since 1844, was incorporated in the Province of Sind. In 1859, a rebellion broke out in the District, necessitating the despatch of a military force under Colonel Evans from Haidarábád to quell it. This officer in the month of May of that year occupied the town of Nagar Párkar, and captured the Ráná, driving back in the following month a large body of Kolis, who had ventured to attack the place. The Ráná and his minister

were in 1868 both tried for sedition, and convicted, the former being sentenced to 14 years' and the latter to 10 years' transportation. From that period down to the present time, Thar and Párkar has enjoyed peace and quietness.

Population.—The population of Thar and Párkar District, according to the Census of 1872, is 180,761 persons, which, on an area of 12,729 square miles, gives an average density of only 14 persons to the square mile. The number of Musalmáns is returned as 96,604, and of Hindus, 62,500; the Christian community numbers 35; and other castes and tribes, 21,622. These latter comprise no doubt Kolis, Mengwars, Rahtors, and others, who might have been included among the Hindu castes. *Bájra* is the staple food of the people, and milk is a common article of diet. The Soda tribe, formerly the dominant race in Thar and Párkar, are of Rájput origin, and warlike in character. The Khosas are fine, robust, martial men, inured to fatigue and hard fare. They are brave and enterprising, but slothful and improvident. Chief among the nomadic tribes in the District are the Udejas, who came originally from Sind; they are a fine, athletic race, and well behaved, and have for some time past turned their attention to agricultural pursuits. The Bhíls rank very low in the social scale, and are much addicted to theft. Taken, however, as a whole, the inhabitants of Thar and Párkar are a peaceable people, neither so litigious nor so quarrelsome as their Sind neighbours. They place great reliance on *pancháyats*, or village arbitration committees. The language spoken in the District is a mixture of Sindí and Kachchhí; formerly, when Thar and Párkar was under the administration of the Political Agent at Cutch, all written correspondence was carried on in the Guzerathi language. There are 11 municipalities in the District, namely, UMARKOT, NABISAR, KHIPRA, SANGHAR, CHACHRA, GADRA, MITTI, ISLAMKOT, NAGAR PARKAR, VIRAWAH, and DIPLA. Total population within municipal limits (1872), 19,560; aggregate municipal income (1876-77), £2557; incidence of taxation, 1s. 8½d. per head.

Antiquities, etc.—The remains of several old temples are to be seen in the Párkar portion of the District. One of these is a Jain temple, 14 miles north-west of Viráwáh, which contains an idol of great sanctity and repute known under the name of Gorcha. Near the same town, also, are the remains of an ancient city called Pára Nagar, covering 6 square miles in area. It is reported to have been founded by Dharma Sinh, but at what period is not known, and to have been very wealthy and populous; its final decay is said to have taken place some time during the 16th century. The ruins of 5 or 6 Jain temples still exist, displaying some excellent sculpture and beautifully executed designs. Another ruined city is Rata-kot, situate on the Nára, south of the town of Khipra, and distant about 20 miles from the village of

Ránáhu. It is supposed to have been in a ruinous condition for the past 500 years, and to have been originally founded about nine centuries ago by a Mughal named Rata. There are several forts in different parts of the District, such as those of Islámkot, Mitti, and Singála; but they are, comparatively speaking, of modern erection, having been built for the most part under the Tálpur dynasty. They are now fast falling into decay, and the materials are used for building purposes.

A fair is held yearly at the town of Pithora, near Akri, in the month of September, in honour of Pithora, a spiritual guide among the Mengwar community, and is attended by about 9000 people, principally of that tribe. Several other small fairs are held in various parts of the District.

Agriculture.—There are throughout Thar and Párkar District three seasons in which agricultural operations are carried on, viz. *kharíf*, *rabí*, and *addáwah;* but the times of sowing and reaping differ somewhat in the Nára tracts from those in the Thar or desert portion of the District. These differences can be best exhibited in a tabular form, and the two following tables are accordingly given, which show also the various crops produced in each season:—

NARA TRACTS.

Seasons.	Time when		Description of Crop.
	Sown.	Reaped.	
1. *Kharíf* .	June to middle of August.	Middle of October to middle of December.	Rice, *joár*, *bájra*, *tíl*, cotton, tobacco, hemp, etc.
2. *Rabí* .	Middle of September and October.	January and February.	Wheat, barley, *siri*, *jámbho*, and *kumba*.
3. *Addáwah* .	February.	April and May.	Cotton, *joár*, *múng*, and melons.

THAR AND PARKAR.

Seasons.	Time when		Description of Crop.
	Sown.	Reaped.	
1. *Kharíf* .	June and July.	October and November.	Rice, *joár*, *bájra*, *tíl*, *múng*, and tobacco.
2. *Rabí* .	October and November.	March and April.	Wheat, barley, *jámbho*, *sirsú*, and *kurar*.
3. *Addáwah* .	January.	May and June.	Cotton, *joár*, *múng*, and water-melons.

The prevailing soil is a light loam called by the natives *gasar*—a medium between stiff clay and fine sand. Salt-pans are worked to a small extent near Bakár. Soda, or *khára chániah*, is obtained from the *dandhs* and exported; and *chiroli*, a sulphate of lime or gypsum, is found near Ghulám Nabi-jo-got. In the Umarkot plains, there is a very large extent of *pat* or salt waste, especially on the north-west side, bordering on Khipra and Hála. All along the Nára are *dandhs* for about 56 miles, from which much salt is produced, mostly used for the curing of fish. In the Dipla and Mitti *táluks*, extensive salt lakes contain almost unlimited supplies of this mineral. The chief vegetable products of Thar and Párkar are rice, *joár*, *bájra*, cotton, oil-seeds, *múng*, (Phaseolus mungo), *tíl*, tobacco, etc.; pulses, fruits, and vegetables are also grown. Wild products include elephant grass (Typha elephantina), from which *pankahs* or hand-fans are made; *pabban* or lotus plant, and various grasses from which ropes and mats are manufactured. Of the total area of the District in 1873-74, 262,477 acres were returned as cultivated; 686,723 acres as cultivable; and 7,198,467 acres as uncultivable waste: total, 8,147,667 acres.

Means of Communication.—Travelling in the Thar or desert portion of the District is very tedious and difficult, owing to the sandhills which have constantly to be crossed. Umarkot, the chief town, has communication with Haidarábád (Hyderábád) by a good road, which is bridged throughout, except where it crosses the Eastern Nára between Garhur and Saseb-ke-thal. The Government telegraph line connecting Haidarábád with Dísa (Deesa) runs through Thar and Párkar *viâ* Umarkot, where there is an office. The postal line from Haidarábád to Bombay *viâ* Ahmedábád also passes through the District. There are 9 ferries, all on the Nára.

Commerce, etc.—The exports from Thar and Párkar consist principally of grain, wool, *ghí*, camels, horned cattle, hides, fish, salt, *cháníha*, and *pan* or *pana*, a kind of reed from which *pankahs* are made. The grain, chiefly rice and wheat, oil-seeds, cattle, goats, and sheep are sent to Guzerat, Pálanpur, and Jodhpur; hides and wool to Haidarábád; *ghí* to Cutch (Kachchh) and Guzerat; and salt, fish, *cháníha*, and *pan* to Haidarábád and Karáchi (Kurrachee). The chief imports are cotton, metals, dried fruits, dyes, piece-goods, silk, sugar-candy, and tobacco. The manufactures of this District consist of woollen blankets and bags, camel saddles and covers, and coarse cotton cloths.

Administration.—The chief revenue and judicial authority in Thar and Párkar is vested in a Political Superintendent, who in his judicial capacity exercises the powers of a Magistrate of a District, and has, besides, the civil jurisdiction of a judge. Under him is an Assistant Political Superintendent, who in his judicial capacity exercises the powers of a first-class subordinate Magistrate, and tries civil cases up to

500 rupees in value; there are also 7 *múkhtiárkárs*, each having the powers of either a first or second class Magistrate, and empowered to decide civil cases up to 200 rupees in value within their respective jurisdictions. Civil courts are situated at Umarkot, Cháchra, Mitti, Nagar Párkar, Dipla, Khipra, and Sánghar. The imperial revenue of Thar and Párkar District in 1873-74 was £31,203, and the local revenue, £2701. The land tax supplied £23,384, and the next largest items are drugs and opium, which yielded £1824. In the same year, there were 14 Government and aided schools, with 761 pupils. The police force numbered 502 men, of whom 377 were mounted on horses and camels, 107 were rural and 18 municipal police. There is thus 1 policeman to every 358 of the population. The crime most rife in this District, as in Sind generally, is cattle-lifting. The number of such cases in 1874 was 77; other thefts numbered 69; murders, 4; hurts, assaults, and use of criminal force, 116; receiving stolen property, 29; house-breaking, 9; highway robberies, 2; other criminal offences, 231. The number of civil suits in the same year (1874) was 269—value, £2901; of these, 235 were suits for money. The only jails in the District are the permanent subordinate ones at Nagar Párkar, Khipra, Sánghar, Mitti, Dipla, and Cháchra.

Climate.—The climate of Thar and Párkar is somewhat similar to that of Cutch (Kachchh), and is subject to great variations of temperature, being excessively hot in the summer and very cold in the winter, the cold increasing as the sandhills are approached. From the beginning of November to the end of February, the weather is pleasant and bracing, after which the hot winds set in, accompanied with heavy dust-storms. The glare and heat during the summer months are intense. The mean annual temperature (1869-74) at Umarkot is 79° F., at Nagar Párkar 85°, and at Mitti 77° F. The rainfall is not equable throughout the extensive area of the District, being heavier in Párkar than in either the Nára or Umarkot *táluks.* The average yearly fall in the towns of Umarkot, Nagar Párkar, and Mitti, during nine years, was found to be 9·17, 17·18, and 9·66 inches respectively. Taken as a whole, the rainfall is heavier than in other parts of Sind. The prevalent diseases are fevers and rheumatism; small-pox has at times committed great havoc. Cholera visited this District in a severe form in 1869, causing serious mortality. The desert portion of Thar and Párkar is, however, exceptionally free from epidemic disease. There are 3 dispensaries—at Umarkot, Mitti, and Nagar Párkar.

Tha-ra-waw-toung-let.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; lies on the left bank of the Irawadi river, and is subject to inundation. Pop. (1877), 8122; gross revenue, £2144.

Tha-re-kún-boung.—Revenue circle in the Naaf township of Akyab

District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 4111; gross revenue, £1071.

Tháriá-ghát.—Village at the southern foot of the Khási Hills, Assam, on the main road from Cherrá Púnjí to Sylhet; police outpost and *dák* bungalow.

Tharrawaddy (*Tharawadi*).—District of British Burma, formed in April 1878, and consisting of that portion of Henzada District east of the Irawadi river.—*See* HENZADA DISTRICT.

Tháru Sháh.—Town in Haidarábád District, Sind; situated 7 miles north-west from Naushahro, on the Nauläkhi Canal, which is here navigable by large boats. Pop. (1872), 2219, of whom 654 are Muhammadans of the Memon and Kuri tribes, 414 Hindus, chiefly of the Loháno caste, the remainder being mainly Síkhs. Municipal revenue (1873-74), £219. Headquarters of the Deputy Collector of the Naushahro Sub-District, and of a *tappadár.* Jail, market, travellers' rest-house, and school. Manufacture of coarse country cloth; cotton twist and goat's hair cloth are also made. Grain is largely exported to Sukkur by boat. Lat. 26° 57′ N., long. 68° 8′ E.

Thatiá Tirwá.—Southern *tahsíl* of Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of a portion of the central Doáb uplands, watered by a branch of the Ganges Canal. Area, 388 square miles, of which 198 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 153,450; land revenue, £22,773; total Government revenue, £24,556; rental paid by cultivators, £44,630.

Thato.—Subdivision and town in Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. *See* TATTA.

Tha-tsí. — Revenue circle in the Henzada township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1878), 4302; gross revenue, £1497.

Thayet (*Thayet-myo*).—A District in the Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 2397 square miles; population (1872), 156,816 souls. Bounded on the north by Independent Burma; on the east by Toung-ngú District; on the south by Prome; and on the west by Sandoway. Lying immediately south of the independent kingdom of Burma, Thayet District touches the frontier line of the Province, demarcated in 1853 by Lord Dalhousie, after the annexation of the Delta of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). The Governor-General directed that the frontier should run as nearly as possible due east and west from Mye-dai, where the British had their most advanced post. The northern boundary of Thayet, from the Arakan to the Pegu Yoma range, is almost 93 miles in length. The most northerly point is marked by a pillar, situated in lat. 19° 29′ 3″ N., which bears inscriptions in Burmese and English characters. The administrative headquarters of the District are at THAYET-MYO TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Thayet differs considerably from the rest of Pegu, inasmuch as it contains no wide open plains, or tracts of virgin soil, such as may be seen lower down the valley of the Irawadi. On the east and west are the Pegu and Arakan Yoma ranges respectively; and the face of the country, where it does not rise into mountains, is everywhere broken by low ranges of hills, many of which are barren and destitute of all vegetation. In the intervening valleys, the husbandman reaps a precarious harvest, with much greater trouble and expense than have to be undergone farther south. The Arakan Yomas in this District do not exceed 5000 feet in height, their most elevated points being Kyí-doung on the northern frontier line, Nat-ú-doung and Shwe-doung-moung-hnit-ma, a double peak. The furious storms which sweep along the higher slopes of these mountains keep them bare of large timber; but from a few hundred feet below the summit, their sides are covered with bamboos and fine trees. Major Allan, when laying down the frontier line of the District, ascended the Kyí-doung peak, and described the Arakan Yomas as being very picturesque, and watered by numerous streams. Four passes cross this range into Sandoway; but these can only be used by persons on foot, and in the dry season. The most southern leads from Kaing-gyi-myoung in the Ka-ma township up the ravine of the Ma-de stream to the village of Mai-za-lí in Arakan, a distance of between 30 and 40 miles. Another route leads northwards from Rwa-thit to the police post of Meng-dai on the La-mú river, a distance of 30 miles. The third and fourth routes lie close together, and are known by the same name, Ma-í. They lead from the villages of Reng-rwa and Kaing-gyi to Leng-dí in Sandoway. The Eastern or Pegu Yoma range in Thayet District nowhere attains a height of over 2000 feet above sea level. Its slopes are clothed with dense forest, and in the valleys and ravines water is found all the year round. These mountains are traversible at almost all points in the dry season by foot-passengers, and by unladen cattle and elephants.

The principal river of the District is the IRAWADI, which traverses Thayet from north to south, entering it at the frontier of the Province, and passing into Prome District near Prome town. Its maximum breadth here is about 3 miles; its banks are everywhere high, and nowhere in Thayet liable to floods. The dry-weather channel varies during the course of years, but the variations generally are slow. In 1855, when the military station of Thayet-myo was formed, the river at all seasons ran immediately under its site; now, in 1879, during the dry weather a sandbank half a mile or more wide has formed between the high bank on which the station is situated and the water's edge. Other instances of changes in the course of the Irawadi may be found in the only two islands of any size which occur in the District—Re-baw opposite

the town of Thayet-myo, and Gnyoung-beng-tshiep between the village of that name and Ka-ma. In the dry season, on the river falling, the former is connected with the left bank, the latter with the right. Eighty years ago, the river, when full, flowed on the other sides of those islands. The navigable channel varies considerably, owing to the shiftings of the sands; yet there are but few places, even when the river is at its lowest in January, February, and March, in which a fathom of water cannot be found. The shallowest spot is near the mouth of the Bhwot-lay, where sometimes only 4 or 5 feet of water are found for a few days in the year.

The drainage from the two boundary watersheds finds its way into the Irawadi by three main streams on the west, and by two on the east: the Pwon, the Ma-htún, and the Ma-de; and the Kye-ní and the Bhwot-lay, respectively. The Pwon rises in Upper Burma, and, entering British territory near the village of Myeng-byeng, joins the Irawadi after a few miles, just above Thayet town. With a strong current and sudden rises and falls in the rains, during the dry weather it becomes a tiny stream running often beneath banks of sand. The Ma-htún or Meng-dún rises north of British territory between two lofty peaks of the Arakan Mountains, and, flowing in a south-easterly direction, traverses the frontier line before it descends from the higher range, and falls into the Irawadi just above Ka-ma, after a course of 150 miles; navigable by the largest boats during the rains. Large quantities of the produce of its fertile valley are brought down on bamboo rafts, and logs of teak timber are floated down singly to be rafted in the Irawadi. It has three main affluents—the Mú, the Hlwa, and the Pa-ní. The Pa-ní rises in Upper Burma, and entering British territory near the village of Khwe-douk, has thence a direct course of about 30 miles, till it joins the Ma-htún a few miles above its mouth, at Tham-bha-ra; navigable during the rains, but little used owing to the rapidity of its current and to its sudden rises and falls. Of the two eastern tributaries of the Irawadi in this District, the Kye-ní rises in the Yoma range in Upper Burma, and after flowing for some distance nearly due west, turns south, and falls into the Irawadi just below Mye-dai. The Bhwot-lay brings down a large volume of water in the rains, but is unnavigable owing to its sudden freshets and the swiftness of its current. Near its mouth it is spanned by a wooden bridge 450 feet long, across which is carried the Rangoon and Mye-dai road.

Several salt and hot springs occur in Thayet District. Nine and a half miles north-north-west from Ka-ma is situated the spot where the curious manifestation known as the 'Spirit Fire' takes place. This is caused by the ignition by some unknown means of the gas which is stored up in subterranean cracks. Petroleum is found near Pa-douk-beng, 7 miles north-north-west from Thayet-myo;

also at Bhan-byeng, about 9 miles from the same town. Extensive lime quarries exist in the Htún-doung range, a few miles south of Thayet-myo. [For further details regarding the geology of the District, see the Records of Mr. W. Theobald (of the Geological Survey of India), No. 4 for 1869, No. 1 for 1870, and No. 2 for 1871.] The chief forest trees are teak (Tectona grandis), *eng* (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus), *sha* (Acacia catechu), *pyeng-gado* (Xylia dolabriformis), *htouk-kyan* (Terminalia macrocarpa), *kút-ko* (Albizzia lebbek), *gyo* (Schleichera trijuga), *reng-daik* (Dalbergia cultrata), etc. Timber-cutting on the Government reserves of teak is forbidden; *pa-douk* (Pterocarpus indicus) can only be felled by persons with trade-permits, who pay duty. The principal animals found in Thayet are leopards, wild cats, barking deer, elephants, rhinoceros, tigers, black bears, and wild hogs. Silver pheasants and partridges are abundant throughout the District.

History.—Thayet is but rarely mentioned in Burmese annals. In the semi-mythical period of Burmese history, the country, of which Thayet forms a part, appears to have been inhabited by the Pyús, one of the three tribes from which the present Burmese race has sprung, the other two being the Kanran or Kanyan and the Thek. The Pyú and Thek are sometimes spoken of as one tribe. In later years, when missionaries from India had converted the people to Buddhism, and classical Pali names were taken generally from the countries mentioned in the sacred books, the lower portion of Thayet District belonged in all probability to Tharekhettra (the modern Prome); whilst the upper tract was included in Thúnaparanta (Tsa-gú, Tsa-leng), on the right bank of the Irawadi, and in Tam-pa-dí-pa (Pagan Ava) on the left bank. The dominions of the first Burmese monarchy, the capital of which was at Ta-goung, never extended so far south as Thayet; but when the Prome dynasty was founded by Dwot-ta-boung, about 444 B.C., this District was comprised within his territories. On the fall of the Prome kingdom, about the end of the 1st century of the Christian era, Tha-mún-da-riet, the fugitive Governor of Prome, escaped and remained a few years at Meng-dún, where he built a city on the site of the present town, and ruled for seven years. Tha-mún-da-riet then appointed his uncle as governor, and, going north, founded a kingdom at Pagan. Here he was succeeded by a scion of the old Ta-goung race, whose dynasty flourished for more than 1100 years. During this time, Thayet District formed an integral portion of the kingdom of Pagan. The last king of Tha-mún-da-riet's line appointed his son Meng-sheng-tsaw as governor of Thayet-myo. Several internal revolts occurred subsequently; the District was captured by Shan chieftains, and its history during this period is highly untrustworthy. In the course of years, Thayet was parcelled out amongst various governors, and so remained until the annexation of Pegu by the British in 1852-53, when

it was formed into a Subdivision of Prome District. In 1870, Thayet was erected into a separate jurisdiction, and placed under a Deputy Commissioner.

Population.—In 1855, the number of inhabitants in Thayet District was estimated at 42,482, exclusive of cantonments and river population. In August 1872, a regular Census was taken for the first time. The number of inhabitants was ascertained to be 156,816, inclusive of cantonments and floating population. Of these, 81,322 were males and 75,494 females. Classified as to religion, there were—Buddhists, 137,252; Hindus, 2029; Christians, 1396; Muhammadans, 1174; 'others,' 14,965. Of the total population, 107,086 were returned as agriculturists. The number of males above 20 years of age so occupied was 29,025. The great bulk of the population are of pure Burmese origin. Actual poverty is almost unknown among them, but wealth is equally rare. The Khyengs, a hill tribe, number 14,000. Thayet has increased steadily in population under British rule, and it possesses a larger proportion of inhabitants to its cultivated or cultivable area than any other District in the Province. This is probably due to its healthy climate. The chief towns in the District are—THAYET-MYO, the headquarters station, pop. (1878), 10,170; ALLAN-MYO, pop. 6841; Rwa-toung, pop. 3696; Ka-ma, pop. 3244; and Meng-dún, pop. 4213.

Agriculture.—The principal crops raised in Thayet District are rice, oil-seeds, cotton, and tobacco. In 1877-78, the area under rice was 68,844 acres; oil-seeds, 8325; cotton, 3944; and tobacco, 4387. The average yield of wet-weather rice is 42 bushels per acre; on lands artificially irrigated and cropped in the dry season, the out-turn is between 60 and 70 bushels per acre. A bushel of good unhusked rice, if well cleaned, will give 31 lbs. of rice. During the exceptionally good harvest of 1872, 100 bushels of unhusked rice sold at 50 rupees, or £5, on the river bank, near the frontier; at 40 rupees, or £4, lower down the river; and at 60 rupees, or £6, at Meng-dún. The *toungya* or hill-garden system of cultivation is very prevalent in Thayet District. The usual crops thus grown are rice and cotton, or sesamum and cotton and vegetables. The average size of a *toungya* is 2 acres, and the value of the produce varies from £5 to £10. On some of the better lands, the growth of jungle is so rapid that *toungya* can be formed on the same spot every fourth year; but, as a rule, *toungya* land is worked only every seventh year.

The cotton of Thayet is perhaps the best in Burma. Formerly, the produce of the District was bought up by Chinese merchants, who established factories for cleaning it on the banks of the Irawadi; thence it was exported by boat to Amarapúra and Bha-maw, and from the latter place on the backs of mules into China. Its price at Amarapúra used to be sometimes as much as 2½ *ánnás*, or 3¾d. per lb. Since the

annexation of Pegu, the course of trade has changed, and all the cotton of the District goes down the Irawadi to Rangoon. The merits of Thayet cotton appear to be that it is exceedingly strong, its colour is good, and its seeds are abundantly enveloped in wool. It is grown entirely in *toungya* clearings, and is generally sown together with rice or sesamum.

At Allan-myo and Rwa-toung there are extensive factories, where all the cotton brought to market is cleaned and roughly baled before being exported to Rangoon. The cotton-cleaning machine consists of a framework of four posts, a bamboo pedal, a fly-wheel and two cylinders placed close to one another, the upper one being of thin iron, and the lower somewhat larger and of wood. The bamboo pedal is attached by a string to the fly-wheel, and the wooden cylinder has a handle at the end opposite to the fly-wheel. The operator, standing in front of the apparatus, with one foot works the pedal, which communicates a rapid motion to the fly-wheel, and thence to the iron cylinder; with one hand he turns the handle of the wooden cylinder, and with the other he feeds the machine, inserting small quantities of cotton between the two cylinders, which catch it up; and whilst the wool passes through between the cylinders, the seed, which is too large to pass, is separated from the wool and left behind. With this apparatus one operator will clean about 12 *viss* (43 lbs.) of raw cotton in a day, turning out about 4½ *viss* (16 lbs.) of cleaned cotton. There are about 4000 of these machines at work in the District. A calculation based on the number of machines, the number of days which they work in the year, and the amount which each machine will clean in a day, makes the estimated amount of raw cotton cleaned in a year 728,000 *viss*, or 1153 tons. Taking the average ratio of cleaned to uncleaned cotton to be 100 to 265, the amount of cleaned cotton turned out in a year would amount to 274,717 *viss* (435 tons). The average price of raw cotton at the river-side marts during the last few years has been Rs. 20 per 100 *viss*, and of cleaned cotton, Rs. 60 per 100 *viss;* cart-hire from the interior costs about Rs. 5 for every 30 miles, an ordinary cart carrying about 150 *viss* at a time.

Thayet is also the largest tobacco-growing District in Burma. The plant is grown chiefly on sandbanks in the Irawadi which are submerged during the rains, and in the beds of the smaller streams. Some foreign varieties have been successfully introduced. Considerable care is shown in the cultivation of the plant; but the native method of drying the leaf in the sun diminishes the value of the produce. The largest out-turn per acre is about 400 *viss* (1460 lbs.).

The two Districts of Prome and Thayet supply the greater portion of the cutch manufactured in British Burma. The mulberry-tree is extensively cultivated for the rearing of silk-worms. The price of raw silk varies from £1, 10s. to £2 per *viss* (3·65 lbs.).

The average size of a holding in Thayet District is about 3 acres. A 200 bushel plot is considered to be the ordinary amount of land which one man and a pair of bullocks can cultivate. The usual price of unhusked rice before 1852-53 was from £2 to £2, 10s. per 100 bushels; latterly it has been from £5 to £6, and even more. In 1877-78, the price of cotton per *maund* of 80 lbs. was 7s.; of salt, 2s.; of rice, 7s. 2¼d.; of tobacco, 12s. A plough bullock costs £4, 10s.; and a buffalo, £5. Wages ruled in 1877-78 as follows:—Skilled labourers, 2s. per diem; unskilled, 1s.

Commerce, etc.—The principal exports of Thayet District are betel-nuts, cotton twist and yarn, crockery, *nga-pí* or dried fish paste, piece-goods, rice, salt, and raw silk. The imports comprise raw cotton, silk goods, indigo, grain, hides, molasses, gums, lac, oil-seeds, petroleum, ponies, jade, and precious stones. On the annexation of Pegu, a frontier custom-house was established at Mye-dai. The exports on which dues were levied, and the rates of such dues, were—rice, 5s. per ton; rice in the husk, half that rate; salt, 14s. 2d. per ton; betel-nut and all preparations of fish, 10 per cent. *ad valorem.* Dues at the rate of 10 per cent. *ad valorem* were levied on imports of all kinds, with the exception of coin, precious stones, cotton, grain and pulse, and living animals, which were free, and teak timber and spirits, for which special rates were provided by Act XXX. of 1854. Dues were levied at these rates until June 1863. In 1855-56, the total value of the import trade was £149,497; in 1862-63, it rose to £386,600. In 1855-56, the value of the exports from Thayet was £365,226; in 1862-63, it was £836,245. This source of revenue was abandoned by the treaty made with the King of Burma on the 10th of November 1862, which provided for an optional abolition of inland customs on both sides of the frontier, and likewise granted the boon of freedom from sea-customs duties to goods landed in Rangoon for transport to Upper Burma. In 1867, the duty on imports was reduced from £1 to 10s. per cent. *ad valorem;* and export duties, hitherto levied at 12s. per cent., were reduced to 10s. per cent. *ad valorem.* Later in the same year, October 1867, the Burmese Government bound itself by treaty to levy no more than the above reduced rates for a period of ten years, the British Government agreeing not to re-impose the frontier customs duties as long as the Burmese Government should collect only the 5 per cent. *ad valorem* duties. Although duties have ceased to be levied on the British side, an establishment is still maintained to register the value of goods carried by boats and steamers. In 1866-67, the value of the trade so registered was £1,117,469. In 1872-73, the total value of the sea-borne trade of Thayet District was £2,343,422; in 1877-78, the value rose to £3,182,825.

Administration.—The ordinary amount of revenue realized in Thayet

District under Burmese rule was about £5000; and the largest sum on record was £10,234, exclusive of the local income. It was raised in different ways in different tracts. In Mye-dai, the owners of cattle were divided into three classes, according to the number of beasts they possessed; fishermen were taxed; and landing, market, and brokerage fees were levied. In Thayet-myo the tax was sometimes levied on cattle-owners, sometimes at so much per house, sometimes on land, and was paid in kind. At one period the revenue was remitted, and Thayet was required to furnish, equip, and pay a contingent of 500 soldiers. In 1870-71, the year in which Thayet was formed into a separate jurisdiction, the revenue was £26,989; in 1877-78, £31,812. The local revenue in these years amounted to £2301 and £5517 respectively. In 1877-78, the incidence of taxation per head of population was 5s. The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner and Assistants. The police force numbers 845 men of all ranks. Of the total male Burmese population above the age of 12 years, about two-thirds are able to read and write. Jail in Thayet-myo town, with a daily average of 466 prisoners in 1877.

Medical Aspects.—The chief characteristic of the climate of Thayet District is its comparative dryness. In 1878, the total rainfall was 35·99 inches. Cattle-disease is very prevalent.

Thayet.—Revenue circle in the Thayet township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), (exclusive of the cantonment of Thayet-myo), 10,427; gross revenue, £2685. Products—rice, sesamum, tobacco, and maize.

Thayet.—The name given to the upper portion of the PAI-BENG creek in Bassein District, British Burma.

Thayet-myo.—Township in Thayet District, British Burma. Lat. 19° 5′ to 19° 29′ 3″ N., and long. 94° 45′ to 95° 16′ 30″ E.; area, 192 square miles; pop. (1872), 35,633, of whom 30,524 were Burmese; revenue (1871-72), £3223.

Thayet-myo. — The chief town and administrative headquarters of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 19° 18′ 43″ N., and long. 95° 15′ 40″ E., on the right bank of the Irawadi, about 11 miles south of the frontier line of the Province. In the rains, the aspect of the place is fresh and green; but during the dry season, when the river has retreated to its dry-weather channel, leaving an extensive sandbank, it presents a dreary appearance. On the annexation of Pegu (1853), Thayet-myo contained only 200 or 300 houses. The total population in 1878 was returned at 10,170. This rapid increase is mainly due to the fact that Thayet-myo is the frontier military station. The cantonment was founded in 1854, and there is some difference of opinion as to whether the selection was a wise one. Though healthy, Thayet-myo is enclosed on the west and south by

ranges of hills shutting out the cool south-westerly breezes, which blow during the hottest period of the year; whilst, on the other hand, the two hills near the old fort of Mye-dai, and the new town of Allan-myo on the opposite side of the Irawadi, are comparatively cool. A sanatorium has been formed on these hills for the troops. From a military point of view, Mye-dai seems a better site than Thayet-myo, as communication with Rangoon is difficult from the latter town. The strength of the military force consists of a field battery of artillery, a wing of a European regiment, and a Native infantry corps, all on the Madras establishment. To the north of the cantonments is a small fort containing the arsenal and commissariat stores, which has lately been improved and strengthened. In 1871, the death-rate amongst the European troops was 11 per thousand; and amongst the Native troops, 6 per thousand. In 1872, it fell to 5·6 and 2·8 per thousand respectively. The most common diseases are paroxysmal fevers, dysentery, and rheumatism. The total rainfall registered in 1876 was 33·79 inches. The water supply is hard, and to some degree unpalatable. Thayet-myo contains the usual headquarters buildings. The municipal revenue in 1878-79 amounted to £2469.

The name 'Thayet-myo' signifies 'Mango city;' but this is said to be a corruption of 'That-yet-myo' or 'City of Slaughter,' so called, as tradition alleges, from one of its early rulers, who killed his sons in order that they might not rebel against him when they grew to manhood. The town of Thayet-myo is said to have been founded in 1306 A.D. by a son of the last King of Pagan, but it has only of late years risen into importance.

Thayet-myoung.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-lay township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the high western slopes of the Pegu Yoma range, and covered with valuable forests. This tract has been described as probably one of the richest teak forests in Pegu. Pop. (1876-77), 1478; gross revenue, £283.

Thayet-tha-mien.—Revenue circle and village in Shwe-gyeng District, British Burma.—*See* THU-YAI-THA-MI.

Thek-ngay-byeng.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1878), 8117; gross revenue, £2265.

Theng-khyoung.—Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 18 square miles; pop. (1877), 2125. Manufacture, coarse sugar; 26 mills were at work in 1875. Gross revenue (1877), £644.

Theog.—A small *thákurát* or lordship in the Simla Hills, tributary to the Native State of KEONTHAL; containing eight *parganás*. The village of Theog is a well-known halting-place, with a *dák* bungalow on the winding mountain road from Simla to Kotgarh, 14 miles east of

Simla. There is a small fort, which, according to Thornton, was garrisoned by the Gúrkhas during their occupation of the country. It is situated in lat. 31° 6′ N., and long. 77° 26′ E., at an elevation of 8018 feet above sea level.

Thí-kweng.—Township in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Covered for the most part with forest, but also possessing cultivated rice tracts. It comprises 10 revenue circles. Pop. (1876-77), 51,946; gross revenue, £19,609. Lat. 16° 35′ to 17° 4′ N., long. 94° 47′ to 95° 15′ E.

Thí-kweng. — Revenue circle in the above township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 45 square miles; pop. (1878), 5777; gross revenue, £1879.

Thit-hpyú-beng.—Revenue circle in the Re-gyí township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 21 square miles; pop. (1878), 4142. Well cultivated with rice; good fishing. Gross revenue, £1617.

Thit-ní-daw.—Revenue circle in the Poung-day township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 3197; gross revenue, £995.

Thoonkhwa. — District, township, and revenue circle in British Burma.—*See* THUN-KHWA.

Thouk-re-gat.—River in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It rises in lat. 19° 28′ N., in the maze of mountains to the east of the Tsit-toung. After flowing southwards for some miles, the Thouk-re-gat turns west, leaving the hills about 20 miles west of Toung-ngú, and joins the TSIT-TOUNG 5 miles south of that town. It drains an area of about 1000 square miles. Its former name was Mya-khyoung, or 'emerald stream,' from its greenish colour. It is fed by mountain streams, and its waters are always clear, cool, and refreshing. Between its upper course and the Tsit-toung river is enclosed a mountainous tract nearly 20 miles wide, and rising to an elevation of 4000 feet. Teak was formerly found in great quantities in the basin of the Thouk-re-gat; but now it has only been preserved on the slopes that are too steep for *toungya* or hill-garden cultivation. For commercial purposes, however, the value of the timber is limited owing to the rocky nature of the bed of the Thouk-re-gat, which renders its transportation to the Tsit-toung difficult.

Thoung-dan.—Revenue circle in the Le-myet-hna township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 100 square miles. Comprises the hilly country east of the Arakan Yomas. Eastwards, there are plains fairly well cultivated, and ending often in low swampy land. Pop. (1878), 7428; gross revenue, £1659.

Thoung-gyeng.—River in Amherst District, Tenasserim, British Burma; forming part of its northern boundary, and separating it from

Siamese territory. It rises in lat. 16° 27′ 47″ N., and long. 98° 50′ 50″ E., and, after a north-north-west course of 197 miles, falls into the SALWIN. Its breadth varies from 100 to 1000 feet. Between Mya-wa-dí—an old and once fortified town, but now a mere village—and its mouth, there are 47 rapids and falls, down which the water rushes with great velocity, rendering navigation impossible. The Thoung-gyeng is of importance as the outlet for the timber brought down from the rich teak forests covering the mountains amongst which it flows. But the working of these forests is tedious and expensive, on account of the distance over which the timber has to be floated before it reaches the Salwín, the time required for the operation being four months.

Thoung-taik.—Revenue circle in the Kyoung-gún township, now joined to Tsam-bay-rún, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 69 square miles. The country is flat and little cultivated. Pop. (1878), 5544; gross revenue, £1472.

Thú-hte.—Revenue circle in the Sandoway township of Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 240 square miles. Chief products—rice, sesamum, and tobacco. Pop. (1877), 3593; gross revenue, £732.

Thul.—*Taluk* or Subdivision of the Upper Sind Frontier District. Area, 968 square miles; 23 villages. Pop. (1872), 34,807. Imperial revenue in 1873-74, £9223; local revenue, £369: total, £9592.

Thul. — Headquarters town of Thul Subdivision, Upper Sind Frontier District, Sind; situated 23 miles from Jacobábád. Station of a *múkhtiárkár* and *tappadár*. Police station, jail, vernacular school, and cattle pound. Pop. (1872), 1043, viz. 636 Hindus and 407 Muhammadans. Lat. 28° 15′ N., long. 68° 49′ E.

Thulendi.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated 18 miles south of Bhilwal, 18 miles south-west of Haidargarh, and 32 miles south-east of Lucknow. Founded by Thúla, a Bhar chief, more than 800 years ago. Situated on an elevated plain, and surrounded by groves. Climate, healthy; soil, clay. The Jaunpur king, Sultán Ibráhím, in the 15th century, built a mud-walled fort, which was made the residence of the revenue officer; but Rájá Niwáz Sinh, a Bráhman, transferred the seat of government to Bachhráwán. Of architectural works, there are—the fort built by Ibráhím, two masonry mosques, the palace of Rájá Niwáz Sinh, and two mud-built tanks. Government vernacular school; five Hindu temples; martyr's tomb; bi-weekly market; annual fair, attended by 4000 people. Pop. (1869), 3157 (of whom 2085 are Muhammadans), residing in 17 brick and 651 mud houses.

Thummapatty.—Town in Salem District, Madras.—*See* THAMMAPATTI.

Thún-khwa.—A District in the Pegu Division of British Burma,

lying between 17° 37′ and 19° 28′ N. lat., and between 95° 53′ and 96° 53′ E. long. Area, 6354 square miles; population (1872), 86,166 persons. Bounded north by Henzada, east by Rangoon, south by the Bay of Bengal, and west by Bassein District. The headquarters of the District are at MA-U-BENG TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The whole face of the country is flat, and intersected by a network of muddy tidal creeks, and almost equally muddy streams, all of which communicate, directly or indirectly, with the IRAWADI. This latter river enters Thún-khwa in the extreme north, and traverses the District from north to south, falling into the Bay of Bengal west of the Kyún-taw. The other principal rivers are the To or China Bakir, the PYA-PUN, and the DA-LA or Kyún-tun. Some of the creeks are navigable by river steamers all the year round, and all are more or less fringed with forest. Owing to the continuous deposit of silt, the land along the margins of the water-courses is raised, and the District is thus divided into a congeries of basin-like islands. The coast-line is generally marked by sandy patches or mangrove swamps. Geologically, Thún-khwa is composed of 'older alluvial clay,' which mainly differs from that of the Gangetic basin in being less rich in lime. Under certain conditions of exposure, this formation assumes a lateritic appearance superficially. The chief timber-trees found in the District are *reng-daik* (Dalbergia cultrata), *pyeng-ma* (Lagerstræmia reginæ), and *ka-gnyeng* (Dipterocarpus sp.). There are no State forests or reserves in Thún-khwa.

History.—The District of Thún-khwa was formed in 1875, and its history previous to that date is identical with that of HENZADA, to which administrative division Thún-khwa originally belonged. During the first Burmese war, no resistance was offered to the British except at DONABYU. In 1825, the troops advanced from Rangoon, the land column under the Commander-in-Chief (Sir Archibald Campbell) moving up the valley of the Hlaing, and the water column under Brigadier Cotton making its way to the Irawadi. Sir A. Campbell's march was unopposed; and Tharawadi Meng, the native prince, retired as the British advanced. The Ban-dú-la, who had commanded Burmese armies in Manipur and Arakan, threw himself into Donabyú, which he strongly fortified. With a reinforcement, the Commander-in-Chief established himself in Henzada, and a little later set out for Donabyú, where he arrived on the 25th of March. Batteries were at once erected, and on the 1st of April opened fire. Ban-dú-la had been killed the day before by the accidental bursting of a shell. The Burmese speedily retreated, and their stockades were captured by our forces.

During the second Burmese war, Donabyú was undefended; but after the occupation of Prome, Myat Htún, an ex-*thúgyí* of a

small circle, succeeded in collecting a body of men, and defied the British, with Donabyú as his headquarters. Early in January 1853, the town was again attacked, and the enemy were driven out, but our forces were obliged to retire on penetrating into the interior. Captain Loch, C.B., R.N., was despatched against Myat Htún; and in the engagement which ensued he was mortally wounded, and among the first to fall. Captain Fytche at this period was occupied in clearing Bassein District of marauding parties, remnants of the Burmese army. Sir John Cheape, who was commanding in Prome, now descended the river, and proceeded to Donabyú. After a severe encounter, the enemy were dispersed, and their works captured. Myat Htún himself escaped, but from this time the country gradually settled down, and has since remained in undisturbed possession of the British.

Population.—The population of Thún-khwa District was returned in 1872 at 86,166 persons. By 1877, the total had risen to 210,975, viz. 108,856 males and 102,119 females. This large increase is due chiefly to immigration. Classified as to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 37,673, and females, 35,170: above 12 years—males, 71,183, and females, 66,949. Classified according to religion, there were—Buddhists, 207,574; Muhammadans, 389; Christians, 2958; Hindus, 54. The density of population was 38·97 per square mile. The largest town in Thún-khwa District is GNYOUNG-DUN, with 9290 inhabitants; MA-U-BENG, the headquarters station, is little more than a village; DONABYU, on the right bank of the Irawadi, contained in 1877-78 a population of 4099; Pan-ta-naw, pop. 5824 persons.

Agriculture.—The principal crops grown in Thún-khwa District are rice, vegetables, and sugar-cane. In 1877-78, the area under rice was 189,635 acres; sugar-cane, 246; *dhaní*, 183; fruit-trees, 18,741; vegetables, 8289; oil-seeds, 159. This is the only District in British Burma where no *toungya* or hill-garden cultivation is carried on. The land is much less fertile than in the neighbouring Districts of Bassein, Henzada, and Rangoon.

Administration. — The total revenue realized in Thún-khwa in 1875-76, the first year after its erection into a separate administration, was £102,430. In 1876-77, this sum had risen to £104,797, and in 1877-78 to £124,337. The District of Thún-khwa consists of the 3 Subdivisions of Ma-ú-beng, Pan-ta-naw, and Gnyoung-dún, each of which is again divided into 2 townships, viz. Thún-khwa and Pya-pún, Gnyoung-dún and Donabyú, Pan-ta-naw and Shwe-loung.

Thún-khwa.—Revenue circle in the Nga-pú-taw township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 38 square miles. At the northern end of the circle, magnesian carbonate of lime and various kinds of sandstone rise abruptly to the surface in small hills, varying from 50 to 100 feet in height. Pop. (1878), 2019; gross revenue, £805.

Thún-khwa.—Township in the District of the same name in Pegu Division, British Burma. The country is generally low, and well cultivated. Chief product, rice. It comprises 4 revenue circles. Pop. (1877), 27,318; gross revenue, £18,603.

Thún-khwa.—Revenue circle in the above township, Pegu Division, British Burma. Consists for the most part of large plains, which, towards the south, are under rice. Pop. (1877), 11,397; gross revenue, £6883.

Thún-tshay.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 64 square miles. Low-lying and cultivated with rice in the west, but broken towards the east by forest-clad spurs from the Pegu Yomas. Pop. (1878), 12,294; gross revenue, £4449.

Thú-yai-tha-mí (or *Thayet-tha-mien*).—Revenue circle in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 200 square miles. Pop. (1878), 6460; gross revenue (1877), £2008. Head-quarters at Thú-yai-tha-mí town, the residence of the extra-Assistant Commissioner in charge of Shwe-gyeng District. Pop. (1878), 907.

Tiágar (*Tiyágar Drug*).—Village and old fort in South Arcot District, Madras; situated in lat. 11° 44′ 20″ N., and long. 79° 7′ 15″ E., 30 miles south of Trinomalai. Pop. (1871), 419, inhabiting 54 houses. Like the fortress of Trinomalai, Tiágar formed one of the bulwarks of the District against invasion from above the Gháts, and was the scene of much hard fighting in the Karnatic wars. Between 1757 and 1780, it was regularly invested five times, and blockaded once; and although never carried by assault, it repeatedly changed hands between English, French, and Mysoreans. Commanding the pass from Atúr in Salem, it was an object to Haidar Alí, and its cession was included in the terms of his treaty with the French in 1760. It formed the rendezvous of his troops before joining Lally at Pondicherri; and here they again collected when retreating before Coote. In 1790, Captain Flint, the defender of Wandiwash, beat off Tipú in two assaults on the town. The roads from Arcot to Trichinopoli and from Salem to Cuddalore intersect at Tiágar.

Tigariá.—Native State of Orissa, Bengal, lying between 20° 25′ and 20° 32′ 20″ N. lat., and between 85° 27′ 45″ and 85° 35′ 30″ E. long. Area, 46 square miles; pop. (1872), 16,420. Bounded on the north by Dhenkánal, on the east by Athgarh State, on the south by the Mahánadi river, and on the west by Barambá State. Although the smallest in point of size, Tigariá is, with the single exception of Bánki, the most densely peopled of the Orissa Tributary States, and is well cultivated, except among the hills and jungles at its northern end. It produces the usual coarse rice and other grains, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, tobacco, cotton, etc., for the transport of which the Mahánadi affords ample facilities throughout its whole southern section. Bi-

weekly markets are held at two villages. The population of 16,420 persons inhabits 75 villages and 2927 houses. Hindus numbered 14,870, or 90·6 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 246, or 1·5 per cent.; 'others,' including the aboriginal tribes (mainly Savars), 1304. Proportion of males in total population, 50·2 per cent.; average density of population, 357 per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 1·63; persons per village, 219; houses per square mile, 64; persons per house, 5·6. The State contains only one village with a population of from 2000 to 3000 souls. Tigariá, the residence of the Rájá, is situated in lat. 20° 28′ 15″ N., and long. 84° 33′ 31″ E. This little principality was founded about 400 years ago by Sur Tung Sinh, a pilgrim to Purí from Northern India, who halted here on his way back, drove out the aborigines, seized the country, and founded the present family. It is said to derive its name from the fact of its having originally consisted of three divisions defended by forts (*trigarh*, or in Uriyá, *gara*). Extensive portions of Tigariá were annexed by neighbouring chiefs in the time of the Marhattá rule. The revenue of the Rájá is estimated at £800; tribute, £88. The militia consists of 393, and the police force of 77 men. Tigariá State contains 12 schools.

Tijára.—A town and *tahsíl* in the Native State of Ulwar in Rájputána; situated in lat. 27° 55′ 50″ N., and long. 76° 50′ 30″ E. The town of Tijára lies 30 miles north-east of Ulwar city. Its population is 7400. The proprietors, according to Major Powlett (*Gazetteer of Ulwar*, London, 1878, p. 129), are Meos, Mállís, and Khánzádas. It has a municipal committee, a dispensary, a school, and a large *bázár*. Next to agriculture, the principal industries are weaving and papermaking. Tijára was the old capital of MEWAT, and a place of importance up to recent times. It was founded by Tej Pal; and was subsequently the headquarters of the powerful Khánzádas of Mewát. Throughout the period of Musalmán rule in India, the Tijára Hills were the strongholds of the turbulent Mewátis; and the town itself frequently changed hands, being occupied successively by Khánzádas, Mughals, Játs, Patháns, Marhattás, Meos, and Narukas.

Tikári.—Town in the *sadr* or headquarters Subdivision of Gayá District, Bengal; situated on the Múrhar, about 15 miles north-west of Gayá city. Lat. 24° 56′ 38″ N., long. 84° 52′ 53″ E.; pop. (1872), 8178; gross municipal income (1871), £180, 10s.; local police force, 14 men. The chief interest of this town centres round the fort or castle of the Rájás of Tikári, who rose into importance after the dismemberment of the Mughal Government in the 18th century. The late chief received the title of Mahárájá in 1873. The rental of the estate is estimated at £46,826, 10s.; and the Government revenue

is £19,250. (For details regarding the Tikárí family, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xii. pp. 51-53.)

Tikot.—Town in Kurundwád, one of the Southern Marhattá States, Bombay. Lat. 16° 15′ 40″ N., long. 75° 33′ 50″ E.; pop. (1872), 7087.

Tikrí.—Village in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 14′ N., and long. 77° 23′ E., 27 miles north-west of Meerut. Pop. (1872), 5698, consisting of 4989 Hindus and 709 Muhammadans. Flourishing agricultural community of Játs.

Tiláin.—Hill range in Cáchár District, Assam, running north from the Lushái Hills on the southern frontier. The height varies from 100 to 500 feet. These hills are crossed by the Silchár and Sylhet road, and might everywhere be rendered accessible for wheeled traffic.

Tilhar.—North-western *tahsíl* of Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a portion of the level Rohilkhand plain. Area, 415 square miles, of which 296 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 244,558; land revenue, £28,713; total Government revenue, £31,587; rental paid by cultivators, £55,272.

Tilhar.—Town in Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; situated in lat. 27° 57′ 50″ N., and long. 79° 46′ 25″ E., 14 miles west of Sháhjahánpur city. Pop. (1872), 5317, consisting of 2730 Hindus, 2582 Muhammadans, and 5 'others.' Station on Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway; considerable entrepôt for local traffic. Telegraph office; Government charitable dispensary. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £1389; from taxes, £958, or 1s. 0⅜d. per head of population (18,825) within municipal limits, which include a large number of adjacent hamlets.

Tiliágarhí.—Pass in the Santál Parganás, Bengal, lying between the Rájmahál Hills on the south, and the Ganges on the north. Formerly of great strategic importance, as commanding the military approaches to Bengal Proper.

Tiljúgá.—River of North Behar; rises in the hills of the Sub-Tarái of Nepál, and flows into Bhágalpur, separating that District on the west from Nepál and Tirhut. At the village of Tilkeswar it bends south-east across the great Monghyr *parganá* of Pharkiyá; and again entering Bhágalpur near Balhar with a due easterly course, falls into the KUSI at Saurá Gadi. At Rawál, 15 miles from Nepál, it sends off a number of channels, which irrigate and drain the country through which they pass. Its chief affluents are the Bálan, Dimrá, Bati, and Katna, the latter river being formed by the united streams of the Talabá, Parwán, Dhúsan, and Loran. The Tiljúgá is navigable by boats of 70 tons burthen as far as Tilkeswar, and beyond by boats of a quarter of that tonnage up to Dighiá, within 10 miles of the Nepál frontier. This river constitutes the main water communication in the north-west of Bhágalpur.

Tilothu.—Village in Sháhábád District, Bengal; situated where the Tutráhí, a branch of the Kudra river, leaves the hills. This spot is sacred to the goddess Totala. The gorge into which the Tutráhí falls is half a mile long, terminating in a sheer horse-shoe precipice from 180 to 250 feet high, down which the river falls. The rock at first recedes at an angle of 100° for about one-third of the height; but above that it overhangs, forming a re-entering angle. The object of interest is an image, bearing the date Samvat 1389, or 1332 A.D., which is said to have been placed here by the Cherus about eighteen centuries ago. It represents a many-armed female killing a man springing from the neck of a buffalo.

Timeri.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras; situated in lat. 12° 49′ 45″ N., and long. 79° 21′ 20″ E., 6 miles south-west of Arcot. Pop. (1871), 3678, dwelling in 395 houses. Timeri was captured by Clive in 1751, after the successful defence of Arcot, and was held by the British till 1758, when it surrendered to D'Estainge. Major Munro recovered the town in 1760.

Tingrikotta.—Town in Salem District, Madras.—*See* TENKARAI-KOTTA.

Tinnevelli (*Tirunelvéli*).—A British District in the Presidency of Madras, lying between 8° 9′ and 9° 56′ N. lat., and between 77° 16′ and 78° 27′ E. long. Area, 5176 square miles; population in 1871, 1,693,959 souls. Tinnevelli occupies the extreme southern and eastern part of the Indian peninsula. Madura District bounds it on the north and north-east; on the south-east and south the Gulf of Mannár, and on the west the Southern Gháts, form natural boundaries. The Gháts divide it from the native State of Travancore. The coast-line extends from Vembár nearly to Cape Comorin (the most southern point of India), 95 miles. The greatest length of the District is, from north to south, 122 miles; and the greatest breadth, from east to west, 74 miles.

Physical Aspects.—Roughly speaking, Tinnevelli is a large plain (of an average elevation of 200 feet) sloping to the east, as may be inferred from the general direction of its rivers. It is, in fact, made up of their drainage basins. Along the western boundary, the mountains rise from the plain to a height of above 4000 feet; but they send out no spurs running into the District, nor are there any isolated hills, and the face of the country is but slightly undulating. The total area of the mountains and elevated tracts is 626 square miles, of which the Southern Gháts occupy 582. The elevation of the land at the foot of the Gháts is about 800 feet. The area of the forests is 75 square miles. None is of any importance. Those at the sources of rivers have been reserved by Government to secure the rainfall. There are 34 rivers, all of which run their whole course within the District. The chief are:—(1) The Támbraparní (length 80 miles), which rises in the Southern Gháts,

and as it leaves the hills it forms a beautiful waterfall at Pápanásam. Its course is on the whole east-south-east, and its name comes from the red or copper colour which it gets from the soil through which it passes. Its principal tributary is the Chittár or Chitranadi ('little river'), which rises above Kuttálam (Courtallum). The Támbraparní passes between the towns of Tinnevelli and Palamcotta, which are two and a half miles apart. (2) The Vaipár. Sátúr is the chief town on its banks. In the north, the scenery is unattractive. There are but few trees, and the soil is nearly all what is called black cotton-soil. To the south, red sandy soil prevails, in which little save the palmyra palm will grow. In fact, Tinnevelli is the palmyra district, as it is the district of the Shánárs, who live by the palmyra. But along the banks of the rivers, rice-fields and a variety of trees and crops render the country more pleasing. The coast has but few villages, and is low and level. There are many shoals near the shore, and numerous rocks and reefs in the north-east. Along the coast are many salt marshes, divided by sand dunes from the sea, with which they have no communication. In the rainy season, these marshes spread over a wide expanse of country. After heavy rain in 1810, four of them became united, and much damage was done to cultivation by the salt stagnant water. The District has not yet been surveyed geologically. The hills which divide it from Travancore are chiefly granite and gneiss, and along the coast stretches the broad belt of alluvium common to the whole east coast of India. 'There are several veins of calc spar crossing the District from west to east, and the beds of all the rivers are more or less encrusted with a deposit of lime. In the black cotton-soil, nodular limestone is very abundant, and below it a bed of gneiss in a partially disintegrated state occurs.'—(Pharoah's *Gazetteer of Southern India*, 1855, p. 436.)

History.—Tinnevelli as a District has no independent history. Its annals are mixed up with those of Madura and Travancore, and there is no great family or town about which its story clusters. Nevertheless it is interesting as the seat of the earliest Dravidian civilisation; and its coast and pearl-fishery were well known to the Greeks. 'According to Tamil tradition, Chéra, Chóla, and Pándiya were three royal brothers, who at first lived and ruled in common at Kolkai, on the Támbraparní. Eventually a separation took place; Pándiya remained at home; Chéran and Chóla founded kingdoms of their own in the north and west.'—(Caldwell's *Dravidian Grammar*, 1875, Int. p. 18.) 'The earliest Dravidian civilisation was that of the Tamilians of the Pándya kingdom, and the first place where they erected a city and established a State was Kolkai, on the Támbraparní river. This civilisation was probably indigenous in its origin, but it seems to have been indebted for its rapid development to the influence of a succession

of small colonies of Aryans, chiefly Bráhmans from Upper India. . . . The leader of the first or most influential Bráhmanical colony is said to have been (the famous *rishi*) Agastya. . . . He is believed to be still alive, and to reside somewhere on the fine conical mountain commonly called "Agastya's Hill," from which the Támbraparní takes its rise. . . . The age of Agastya was certainly prior to the era of the Greek traders.'—(Caldwell's *Dravidian Grammar*, Int. p. 118.) Agastya is the traditional founder of the Tamil language. The first capital of the Pándyas was Kolkai, above named; the second, and more celebrated, was Madura. Kolkai is the Κόλχοι ἐμπόριον of Ptolemy (130 A.D.), and of the author of the Periplus (80 A.D.), both of whom speak of it as the headquarters of the pearl-fishery, and belonging to the Pándyan king. 'This place is now about 3 miles inland. . . . After the sea had retired from Kolkai, in consequence of the silt deposited by the river, a new emporium arose on the coast, which was much celebrated during the Middle Ages. This was Káyal, . . . the Cael of Marco Polo. . . . Káyal in turn became too far from the sea for the convenience of trade, and Tuticorin (Túttrukudi) was raised instead, by the Portuguese, from the position of a fishing village to that of the most important port on the Southern Coromandel coast.'—(Caldwell's *Dravidian Grammar*, Int. p. 102.) A flourishing direct trade was carried on from Káyal with China and Arabia, by Arabs and others. 'When the Portuguese arrived at Cael, . . . they found the King of Zuilon . . . residing there. The prince referred to would now be called King of Travancore; and it is clear, from inscriptions, . . . that the kingdom of Travancore sometimes included a portion of Tinnevelli.'—(Caldwell's *Dravidian Grammar*, Int. p. 11.) The power of the Portuguese along the coast lasted till the 17th century, when they were expelled by the Dutch, who set up a factory at Tuticorin. On the decay of the Pándyan kingdom, Tinnevelli fell under the Náyakkans of Madura. About 1744, Tinnevelli became nominally subject to the Nawáb of Arcot; but it was really divided between a number of independent chiefs (*pálaiyakkárar*, corruptly *poligar* or *pálegár*), who had forts in the hills or dense jungle with which the District was covered. Some collectors of revenue contrived to elude the immediate control of the Muhammadans, and gradually established themselves as independent. The other *pálegárs* were the representatives of the feudal chieftains of the old Madura kingdom. All were made to pay tribute according to the power of the Nawáb's government to enforce it. All exercised criminal and civil jurisdiction, and were continually at war with their neighbours, or in revolt against the State. Tinnevelli used to be farmed out by the Nawáb at a low rent; but even this generally ruined the renters, partly because of the resistance of the *pálegárs*, and partly because of the mismanagement and tyranny of the

renters themselves. The *pálegárs* kept about 30,000 peons, a rabble of ill-armed and ill-drilled soldiers, which secured their independence.

Up to 1781, the history of the District is a confused tale of anarchy and bloodshed. In 1756, Muhammad Yusaf Khán was sent to settle the two countries of Madura and Tinnevelli. He gave Tinnevelli in farm to a Hindu at £110,000 a year, and invested him with civil and criminal jurisdiction. Muhammad Yusaf Khán was recalled from the south in 1758, and the country immediately relapsed into its previous state of anarchy. He returned in 1759, and undertook himself the farm of Madura and Tinnevelli. He ruled till 1763; but as he could not or would not pay his tribute, an army was sent against him, and he was captured at Madura, and hanged. In 1781, the Nawáb of Arcot assigned the revenues of the District to the East India Company, whose officers then undertook the internal administration of affairs. In 1782, the strongholds of Chokkanapatti and Pánjálamkurichchi were reduced by Colonel Fullarton, who also subdued some refractory *pálegárs*. However, to the end of the century some of the *pálegárs* exercised civil and criminal jurisdiction in their territories. They rebelled in 1799, when the war with Tipú had withdrawn our troops from the south. They were therefore disarmed, and their forts were destroyed; but another rising took place in 1801. This was put down; and in the same year the whole Karnatic, including Tinnevelli, was finally ceded to the English. Since that time there has been no historical event worth notice.

Population.—According to the Census of 1871, the population numbered 1,693,979 persons in 1824 villages, and 403,803 houses. (The total is perhaps double what it was in 1836-38, and three times what it was in 1821-22.) Per square mile—persons, 327·3 (the Madras average is 226·2); villages, etc., 0·35; houses, 78. Persons per village, 928·7; per house, 4·19. The proportion of females is 102·5 to every 100 males. Religious divisions—Hindus, 89 per cent.; Christians, 6 per cent.; Muhammadans, 5 per cent. There are only 327 Europeans and Eurasians. Hindus numbered 1,506,621 in 1871, of whom Bráhmans constituted 3·5 per cent.; agricultural castes (Vellálars, Vanniars, Shánárs), 62 per cent.; Pariahs, 10·4 per cent. The most interesting castes are the Shánárs and the Paravars. The latter are all Catholics. The Shánárs are a low caste, living solely by the cultivation of the palmyra palm. They claim (perhaps with justice) to be the original lords of the soil. Christian missions have been especially successful among them. Devil-worship is common, especially among the Shánárs. Tinnevelli has been less influenced by pure Hinduism than other Districts. Some Bráhmans have even taken up the local devil-worship. At Srívaikuntham is a curious subdivision of the Vellálar caste, the Kottai Vellálars ('Fort Vellálars'), who live in a mud inclosure or

fort so-called, out of which their women are not allowed to go. The three most celebrated Hindu shrines are at Tiruchendúr on the sea-coast, at Pápanásam on the Támbraparní, and at Kuttálam (Courtallum) on its tributary the Chittár. At both the two latter places there are beautiful waterfalls at the foot of the hills. Kuttálam is also known as Tenkásí, *i.e.* the Southern Benares. The scenery is very lovely.

The Christians were thus subdivided in 1871 :—Catholics, 52,780; Protestants, 49,796; total, 102,576. The history of the Catholic Church in Tinnevelli practically dates from the 16th century, though here are some traces of more ancient missions. It was on the Tinnevelli coast that St. Francis Xavier, in 1542, after a short stay at Goa, began his work as Apostle of the Indies. The Paravars, then as now a fishing caste, had received Portuguese protection against the Muhammadans, who oppressed them; and many of them had become Christians. St. Francis completed the work, and since then all the Paravars have called themselves his children. They are spread along the coasts of Tinnevelli, Madura, and Ceylon. Tuticorin is their chief town. We read of the martyrdom, in 1549, at Punnaikáyal, of Father Antonio Criminale, the proto-martyr of the Society of Jesus. Many of the letters of St. Francis Xavier were written from Tuticorin and other places in the neighbourhood. For some time the missions were confined to the coast. The famous Jesuit mission of Madura was founded by Father Robert de Nobili (an Italian) in 1607, and soon extended itself into Tinnevelli. The letters of the Jesuits from 1609 to 1780 are almost the only materials for the history of Madura and Tinnevelli during much of this time. John de Britto (martyred in Madura, 1693) laboured at times in Tinnevelli, and Father Beschi (the great Tamil scholar, ob. about 1746) lived some time at Kayatár. Christianity prospered in Tinnevelli, in spite of all difficulties; but its progress was arrested by events in Europe. In 1759, Portugal suppressed the Society of Jesus in its dominions, and imprisoned all its members. The Jesuits on the Eastern missions were on various pretexts brought within reach of Portuguese officials. They were summoned to Goa and other places, and there seized and imprisoned. Those who remained in the missions were deprived of all aid, communication with Europe was rendered difficult, and the supply of priests cut off. The general suppression of the Society of Jesus in 1773, the French Revolution in 1789, and other European troubles, still further injured the missions. Till 1837, Tinnevelli had only a few priests from Goa, and in the absence of priests the number of Catholics declined. In 1837, Tinnevelli with other Districts was entrusted to French Jesuits, and since that time the mission has made steady progress. In 1851 there were 23,351 Catholics; in 1871 there were 52,780, and of late this number has much increased. Everything had to be created,—

churches, schools, etc. At first, owing to their small number, the priests were overworked; bad food, exposure, and other sufferings due to extreme poverty, caused the death of many, especially from cholera. In 1846, the Vicariate-Apostolic of Madura (of which Tinnevelli forms a part) was erected. At present (1880) there are in the District 21 priests of the Society of Jesus (17 Europeans and 4 natives), under the jurisdiction of the Vicar-Apostolic, and 5 native secular priests, under the jurisdiction of the Archbishop of Goa. There are about 49 churches and 78 chapels, 26 boys' schools and 6 girls' schools, with 785 boys and 197 girls. There is a convent of European nuns at Tuticorin, and one of native nuns, who have charge of a girls' orphanage and hospital at Adeikalapuram, at which place there is also a boys' orphanage.

Protestant missionaries first visited Tinnevelli towards the end of the last century. The Lutheran Schwartz seems to have been here in 1770, and a few years later one of his converts built a small church at Palamcotta. In 1785 he had 100 converts at that place. The District was visited periodically from Tanjore (200 miles) by native Lutheran ministers. In 1792 there were several distinct congregations. Jænicke worked with success from 1792 to 1800, and after him Gericke baptized many persons. The East India Company's chaplain at Palamcotta (J. Hough) in 1816 infused new life into the mission. At that time it numbered 3000 souls, and for ten years it had not been visited by a European missionary. Two Lutheran ministers (Rhenius, a man of great ability, and Schmid) were sent out by the Church Missionary Society in 1820; and under them converts increased to 11,186 in 1835. In 1826, the missions in Tinnevelli of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, were handed over to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel; and since that time the latter Society and the Church Missionary have divided the District between them. At least two-thirds of their converts are Shánárs. In 1851 the number of Protestants was 35,552; in 1871 it was 49,796. In 1877, two missionaries, one from each society, were consecrated Bishop's Assistants to the Bishop of Madras: Dr. E. Sargent, of the Church Missionary Society, and Dr. R. Caldwell, the distinguished Orientalist. During the late famine the number of converts greatly increased. The following are the latest (1879) statistics of the two societies:—European and Eurasian missionaries, 5; native clergymen, 80; schoolmasters and other paid agents, 980; schools, 600; school-boys, 13,310; school-girls, 5560; Christians, 58,930. The small number of Europeans employed is very noticeable. It is intended gradually to form a self-ruling and self-supporting church. Some of the native clergymen are already maintained by their flocks, and a system of church councils has been organized.

The greater part of the Muhammadans in Tinnevelli are descended from the ancient Arab traders and their converts. They are found along the whole coast of the Támil country, and are called by the English 'Labbays,' but call themselves Sónagars. Here, as elsewhere, they are chiefly employed in fishing and seafaring pursuits.

Madura and Tinnevelli are the Districts which supply Ceylon with labourers for the coffee plantations, etc. Ordinarily, three-fourths of these return to India in a year or two. The rest remain permanently in Ceylon. During the famine of 1877, a very large number went to Ceylon, and the demand for labour fell off. Hence in 1878-79 there were 40,435 immigrants, and only 34,083 emigrants from Tinnevelli.

Tinnevelli has a larger number (46) of towns with over 5000 inhabitants than any other Madras District save Malabar. The most important are TINNEVELLI, PALAMCOTTA, TUTICORIN, and SATUR. The District contains many ancient and magnificent buildings,—*e.g.* the temple in Tinnevelli town (which see), a rock temple at Kalugu-malai (with some of the oldest Támil inscriptions known), also several Jain images (a colossal one now at Tuticorin), etc. But the most interesting antiquities are the large sepulchral earthen pots of prehistoric races, which have been found at several places. These contain bones, pottery of all sorts, beads and bronze ornaments, iron weapons and implements, etc.

Agriculture, etc.—Tinnevelli is a fertile District, and ordinarily enjoys good seasons. Out of a total of 5176 square miles, 1112 are uncultivable waste, 965 uncultivated, and 2751 actually under cultivation. In 1878-79, 798,897 acres were under cereals; chiefly rice, grown along the well cultivated and highly productive river valleys, 224,184; spiked millet or *kambu* (Panicum spicatum), 179,059; *chinah* (Panicum milliare), 174,128. Pulses, 83,838 acres. There are 3030 acres of plantains; being more than in any other Madras District, except Tanjore. Tobacco, 1696 acres; coffee (lately introduced on the slopes of the hills), 2119 acres; chillies, 4434 acres; oil-seeds, 40,939 acres, of which 27,834 are occupied by gingelly, an amount only exceeded in Madras by Godávari and South Arcot Districts. Cotton (grown in the drier parts), 135,978 acres. Tinnevelli is one of the four great cotton Districts of Madras. The palmyra palm flourishes in the almost rainless tracts of red sandy soil to the south. The Shánárs live by making coarse sugar (jaggery) from its juice. There are about 200,000 acres of irrigated land, producing a revenue of about £150,000. The Srívaikuntham anicut system is important, and nearly complete. The anicut crosses the Támbraparní river about 16 miles from its mouth, and is the lowest weir on the river. It will bring 32,000 acres of land under cultivation. There are about 2322 tanks, and about 78 weirs (some very large and very ancient) across rivers, etc.

70·3 per cent. of the people are on Government or *rayatwári* lands (2987 square miles), 23·5 on permanently settled estates of *zamíndárs*, etc. (1452 square miles); and 6·2 on *inám* villages, *i.e.* permanently alienated as civil or religious endowments (409 square miles). There are 21 *zamíndárs* and 43 *mittádárs*. The chief is the *zamíndár* of Ettiyapuram, who pays a *peshkash* of £8837 a year. Some of these *zamíndárs* represent the ancient *pálegárs*. In 1878-79, the average rates of wages were—for unskilled labour in towns, 4⅛d., and in villages, 3½d. a day. The price of rice in the same year was 8s. 6⅛d. per *maund* of 80 lbs., and of *kambu* (the staple food of the District), 5s. 2¾d.

Natural Calamities, etc.—During the drought of 1877, Tinnevelli suffered comparatively little. The greatest number of persons in receipt of relief in any week was 24,117, in September. In 1878, the south-west monsoon was also unfavourable, and the north-east monsoon excessive. Much damage was done by two unparalleled floods in the Támbraparní, which laid waste much country, and in many villages what escaped the excessive rain was quite destroyed by locusts. The native Christians suffered least during the famine, and the Musalmáns much less than the Hindus.

Commerce, Trade, etc.—Tuticorin is, of the four sanctioned ports, the only one of importance. The exports are cotton, coffee, jaggery, chillies, etc. Sheep, horses, cows, and poultry are also sent to Ceylon. Tinnevelli has 3 per cent. of the total value of the Madras trade. In a recent average year, the value of the imports was £656,485; and of the exports, £865,714. More than half the imports were from, and nearly all the exports were to, foreign countries. The vessels engaged in foreign trade were 550, and in coasting trade, 181. The number of boats in 1878-79 was 568. There is a considerable inland trade with Travancore. The coast is interesting on account of the pearl and *shánk* (shell) fisheries, both of which are Government monopolies. The pearl-fishery is very ancient (see above, *History*). It is mentioned by Pliny (A.D. 130), by Muhammad Ben Mansur in the 12th, and by Marco Polo in the 13th century. The Indian coast of the Gulf of Mannár (from Cape Comorin to Pámbam) was called 'the coast of the fishery,' *i.e.* pearl-fishery, a name which it retained in the letters of the Jesuits up to 1780. The Venetian traveller Cæsar Frederic (1563-81) describes the fishery in a way which applies to the present day. Then, as now, the divers were all Catholics (Paravars). At one time the Dutch obtained from the King of Madura a monopoly of the pearl and *shánk* fisheries on the Tinnevelli coast, and derived a large revenue from licences to fish. The colour of the pearls of the Gulf of Mannár is not good. This is perhaps due to the practice of letting the oyster putrefy before it is opened. The English first entered on the pearl-

fishery in 1796, since which time a total sum of nearly £120,000 has been realized, at a cost of not more than £600 a year. In 1822, the pearl-fishery produced a revenue of £13,000; in 1830, £10,000. Between 1830 and 1861 there were no fisheries, as the beds seemed exhausted. This has been ascribed to currents produced by the deepening of the Pámbam channel. In 1861 and 1862 the fisheries realized £37,858. Since then, all hope of profitable fisheries has been abandoned. A small steamer and a yacht are kept as a guard establishment. The *shánk* or conch shells are found all along the coast, and from time immemorial have been sent to Bengal and elsewhere. Formerly the fishery was under Government management, afterwards it was leased for a term of years. From 1861 to 1876, licences were granted, which yielded £480 to £600 a year. Since 1876 the fishery has again been taken under Government management. In 1877-78, the profit was £2290. The divers were paid £2 for a thousand shells, and the price got by Government was £9, 2s. for each thousand of good shells.

The aggregate length of imperial and local roads in Tinnevelli District is 969 miles. The principal road is that which connects Madura, Palamcotta, and Travancore. It enters the District near Virudupatti, and leaves it near the 'Arambúli lines,' a total length of 107 miles. There are also some important roads connecting the cotton districts with Tuticorin. There are no canals in the District. The total length of railway is 95 miles, all part of the South Indian Railway, the main line of which enters the District 5 miles north of Virudupatti, and runs to Tuticorin (77 miles). There is a branch line to Tinnevelli (18 miles). There are 11 railway stations. The railway is of much importance, connecting as it does the port of Tuticorin with the cotton districts, with Madura, etc. It was opened December 1875, on the occasion of the Prince of Wales' visit. During the famine of 1877-78, much rice was brought by sea to Tuticorin, and conveyed into Madura District. Besides the railway telegraph offices at every station, Government telegraph offices are open at Tuticorin and Palamcotta. The Bank of Madras has a branch at Tuticorin. Since 1859, there has been a Government District printing press, where the District Gazette is printed in English and Támil (the prevailing language of the District). In 1878-79, there were 3 private presses, one of them belonging to the Church Missionary Society.

Administration, etc.—In the last century, Tinnevelli was supposed to yield £110,000 a year to the Nawáb of Arcot. 'So little was known of the District and its resources at the end of the last century, that, according to Colonel Fullarton, the Supreme Government of Bengal actually despatched Mr. Deighton to negotiate its transfer to the

Dutch, in return for the temporary services of a thousand mercenaries. Before the negotiations could be entered on, war had broken out between the Dutch and English, and thus one of our most valuable Districts was saved' (*Madras Census Report*, 1874, vol. i. p. 309). In 1850, the total revenue was £261,580 (land, £202,460). Between 1873-74 and 1875-76 (ordinary years), the land revenue averaged £294,123. In 1876-77 (famine year), the total revenue was £416,154 (land, £242,363). In 1877-78 (also affected by famine), the total revenue was £427,040 (land, £236,545). In 1878-79, the total revenue was £491,984 (*i.e.* 5s. 10⅛d. a head, the Madras average being 4s. 11¾d.). Land revenue yielded £294,142 (3s. 5½d. a head, Madras average being 3s. 1⅞d.); excise, £16,598; assessed taxes, £2330; sea customs, £6411; salt, £139,485 (there are 5 salt factories and 2 salt stations); stamps, £33,016. The total cost of all officials and police was £54,270. The *rayatwári* system was finally established in 1820, since which time there has been a periodical revision of rates, as elsewhere in Madras, where this system prevails. The present settlement expires in 1906-07. For 1878-79, 2929 square miles were assessed at £255,994, being an average of 3s. 5¾d. an acre. The *zamíndárís* were permanently settled under a regulation of 1802, and a special commission (1858-70) regulated the question of *inám* or rent-free lands.

For revenue purposes, the District is divided into 9 *táluks*, in 4 groups:—(1) Under the Collector, who is also the District Magistrate, at Palamcotta (*táluk*, Tinnevelli); (2) Under the Sub-Collector, Tuticorin (*táluks*, 1. Otapidáram, 2. Tenkarai); (3) Under the Head Assistant Collector, Shermádevi (*táluks*, 1. Nánguneri, 2. Ambásamudram, 3. Tenkásí); (4) Under the General Deputy Collector, Srívilliputtúr (*táluks*, 1. Srívilliputtúr, 2. Sátúr, 3. Sankaranainárkoil). All the above officials have criminal jurisdiction in their groups, and have under them 17 sub-magistrates, 9 of whom are the *tahsíldárs* in charge of *táluks*. The District and Sessions Judge has civil and criminal powers, with his Court at Palamcotta. Subordinate to him are 5 District *munsífs*, with civil powers. The heads of villages deal with petty crime, and try civil suits for sums up to £1. The police staff consists (1878-79) of one superintendent and 1 assistant superintendent, 22 subordinates, and 1019 constables. The total cost was £17,177. The District jail at Palamcotta had in 1878-79 a daily average of 486 prisoners. There are also 18 subsidiary jails, which had a daily average of 116 prisoners. The only military station is Palamcotta, which is garrisoned by a Native infantry regiment. In 1876-77, the number of schools connected with the Educational Department was 1055, with 34,796 pupils, *i.e.* 1 pupil to every 49 of the population. This proportion is only exceeded in two other Districts of the Presidency, namely,

Madras and Nílgiri, the circumstances of both of which are exceptional. There are more girls at school in Tinnevelli than in any other District. According to the Census of 1871, the following could read and write:—Of Hindus, 7 per cent.; of Muhammadans, 8·2; of native Christians, 12·2; of Eurasians and Europeans, 59·2; of others, 22·2; total, 8·2. Thus the native Christians stand high in the list of the instructed. There are no Government schools. All the schools are private (belonging to missions or otherwise): many are aided from provincial, municipal, or local funds; others are not aided, though under Government inspection. There are 3 municipal towns—Tinnevelli, Palamcotta, and Tuticorin. For the administration of local funds, the District is divided into 2 circles—Tinnevelli (6 *táluks*) and Shermádevi (3 *táluks*).

Climate, Medical Aspects, etc.—'Tinnevelli, lying immediately under the Southern Gháts, receives very little of the rainfall of the south-west monsoon, though parts of it are watered by streams which rise in the hills. The rainfall on the hills dividing Tinnevelli from Travancore is probably 200 inches a year' (*Madras Census Report*, 1875, vol. i.). Throughout the District, the average rainfall is only 24·79 inches. The climate in the north is very similar to that of Madura, 'but there is a considerable difference towards the centre, and along the fertile banks of the Támbraparní. The northern monsoon seldom reaches these quarters before the end of November, and generally is not so heavy as in the Central Karnatic. In common seasons, the rains are over about the end of December. . . . This District has one peculiarity of climate, which is, that a fall of rain is always expected late in January, sufficient to raise the rivers and replenish the tanks' (Pharoah's *Gazetteer of Southern India*, p. 439). The mean temperature of Tinnevelli town is 85° F. During December and January, the temperature falls under 70° at night. The hottest month is April. Kuttálam (Courtallum) is the sanatorium of the District. Tinnevelli is not reckoned unhealthy. In 1878-79, the percentage of deaths from cholera was less than in any other part of the Presidency, except Madras city. The fever mortality averages only 4·3 per thousand. The registered deaths in 1878 showed a death-rate of 22·4 per thousand. In 1877, there were 8 dispensaries, 5 of which treat each from 600 to 1000 in-patients and 4000 to 6000 out-patients a year. In 1878, the Government vaccinators vaccinated 29,074 persons. The 'Labbays' object to vaccination on religious grounds.

Tinnevelli (*Tirunelvéli*).—Chief town of Tinnevelli District, Madras; 1½ mile from the left bank of the Támbraparní. Lat. 8° 43′ 47″ N., long. 77° 43′ 49″ E.; pop. (1871), 21,044, inhabiting 5518 houses. Tinnevelli is the largest town in the District to which it gives its name;

but the administrative headquarters are on the other side of the Tann river at PALAMCOTTA, 2½ miles distant. Population (1871), 21,044, namely, Hindus, 19,921 (including native Christians), and Muhammadans, 1123. When the District was subject to the Náyakians of Madura, their Governor, who was a very high official, lived in great state at Tinnevelli. About 1560, Visvanátha, the founder of the Náyakkan dynasty of Madura, rebuilt the town, and erected many temples, etc. Ferguson (*Hist. of Indian Archit.*, p. 366) cites the great Siva temple as giving a good general idea of the arrangement of large Dravidian temples, and as 'having the advantage of having been built on one plan at one time, without subsequent alteration or change.' It is a double temple. The whole inclosure measures 508 by 756 feet. Like some other large temples, it contains a thousand-pillared portico. In 1877, the municipal dispensary treated 719 in-patients and 5291 out-patients. The 'Hindu Anglo-vernacular' school is the most important school in the District. Tinnevelli is the terminus of a branch of the South Indian Railway. The town is notable as an active centre of Protestant missions in South India. It has lately been created a diocese, and a bishop appointed. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £1538; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 2⅜d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Tipái.—River of Southern Assam, which runs a winding course through the Lushái Hills, and joins the Barák in the extreme south-east corner of Cáchár District. At the junction is situated the village of Tipái-mukh (lat. 24° 14′ N., long. 93° 3′ 3″ E.), where a *bázár* has been established for trade with the Lusháis, at which cotton, *purí* cloth, caoutchouc, and other jungle products are bartered for salt, rice, and hardware.

Tipperah (a corruption of *Tripurá*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 23° 2′ and 24° 16′ 15″ N. lat., and between 90° 36′ and 91° 25′ E. long. Area, 2624 square miles; pop. (after deducting transfers made up to 1875), according to the Census of 1872, 1,522,228 souls. Area (after recent transfers), 2460 square miles; pop. (according to Parliamentary Abstract for 1878), 1,419,229. These figures are inclusive of the *thánd* of Chhágalnáiyá (pop. 114,702), which was in 1876 transferred to Noákhálí District. Tipperah forms one of the Districts of the Dacca Division. It is bounded on the north by the Bengal District of Maimansinh and the Assam District of Sylhet; on the east by the State of Hill Tipperah; on the south by Noákhálí District; and on the west by the river Meghná, which separates it from the Districts of Maimansinh, Dacca, and Bákarganj. The line of contact between Tipperah District and the State of Hill Tipperah, besides being the District

boundary, is also the imperial frontier line of British India in this direction. The administrative headquarters are at COMILLAH (Kumillá).

Physical Aspects.—Tipperah presents a continuous flat and open surface, with the exception of the isolated Lálmái range. The greater part of the District is covered with well-cultivated fields, intersected in all directions by rivers and *khâls* or creeks, which are partially affected by the tides. All communication and transport are effected by means of boats, except during the few months of the hot weather when the village footpaths can be made use of. Near the eastern boundary, the country becomes more undulating. A series of low forest-clad hills rise to an average height of 40 feet above the plains. Near the large rivers towards the west, the country is under water during the rainy season. The villages are usually built amid plantations of mangoes, plantains, bamboos, and palms. The Lálmái Hills, already referred to, form the only range in the District. They are situated about 5 miles west of Comillah (Kumillá), and extend north and south for a distance of 10 miles. The average elevation of this range, which is densely wooded, is 40 feet above the plains and 90 feet above sea level; they nowhere exceed 100 feet in height. On the top of Ragnámatí Hill, north of the Lálmái range, the Rájá of Hill Tipperah has built a small house for the use of the European residents of Comillah. This is the highest point of the range, and the most picturesque spot in the District. The MEGHNA, which flows along the entire western boundary of the District, is the only river navigable throughout the year by trading boats of 4 tons burthen; but the GUMTI, DAKATIA, and TITAS are navigable for craft of that size for a considerable portion of their course. The Muhurí, Bijáigang, and Borigang are all navigable by boats of 4 tons during at least six months of the year. It has been already said that the Lálmái Hills are thickly wooded; there are also dense jungles towards the south-west of the District, but these yield no revenue to Government. The large game include elephants, tigers, leopards, wild boars, jackals, and buffaloes; the small game consists of hares, geese, ducks, plovers, pigeons, pheasants, jungle-fowl, partridge, quail, snipe, and florican.

History.—When, in 1765, the District of Tipperah came under the control of the East India Company, more than one-fifth of the present area was under the immediate rule of the Rájá of Hill Tipperah, who merely paid a tribute of ivory and elephants. In earlier times, it is certain that the conquests of the Rájás of Hill Tipperah carried the bounds of their kingdom far beyond the present limits of Tipperah District. It is, however, almost impossible to ascertain with accuracy any details of the early history of the British District, as the only written

records are the *Rájmálá*, or 'Chronicles of Tipperah,' and references in Muhammadan writings, which relate almost exclusively to HILL TIPPERAH STATE. It seems clear, however, that as early as the 13th century Tipperah had reached some degree of material prosperity, for when Muhammad Tughral invaded the country in 1279 A.D., he carried off 160 elephants and a large amount of booty. Again, about 1345 A.D., Iliás Khwájá invaded Tipperah, and plundered it; but despite these and other invasions, the kingdom of Tipperah remained independent up to the time of Shujá-ud-dín Khán, who reduced it to subjection about 1733. The Muhammadans, however, did not occupy the whole of the kingdom, but appear to have contented themselves with the lowlands, which alone came on the rent-roll of Bengal, and lay within the jurisdiction of the Nawáb; while the hilly tracts to the east remained in the possession of the Tipperah Rájá. In 1765, when Bengal was ceded to the British, Tipperah and Noákhálí Districts were included in Jalálpur, one of the 25 *ihtimáms* into which Shujá Khán had divided the Province. Until 1769, the administration of Jalálpur was entrusted to 2 native officers, but from that year until 1772 it was under 3 English 'Supervisors.' In 1772, a Collector was appointed, and since then the administration has been in the hands of English officers. In 1781, Tipperah and Noákháli were constituted a single revenue charge; and in 1822, the Districts were separated. Since then, great changes have been made in the boundaries of the District.

The only event which has occurred to break the peaceful monotony of British rule, was a serious raid in 1860 by the Kukís or Lusháis. On the 31st January of that year, they suddenly entered the District at Chhágalnáiyá, burnt and plundered 15 villages, murdered 185 British subjects, and carried off about 100 captives. Troops and police were at once hurried to the spot, but the Kukís had remained only a day or two in the plains, retreating to the hills and jungles by the way they came. The perpetrators of this attack were followers of Rattan Puiyá, whose clan was known to live far up between the sources of the Pheni and the Karnaphulí rivers. In 1861, a large body of military police, under Captain Raban, marched against Rattan Puiyá's village; but no sooner had they appeared in sight, than the Kukís themselves set fire to the place, and fled into the jungles, where pursuit was impossible. Since this raid, no attack has been made on Tipperah District by the Kukís.

Population.—Tipperah District was surveyed in 1861-64, and the population was then estimated at 717,470. Another estimate in 1866 made the number of inhabitants 700,500. The Census of 1872, however, showed that both of these estimates were much below the truth. It

disclosed a total population (including Chhágalnáiyá *thána*, since transferred to Noákhálí) of 1,533,931 persons, inhabiting 6150 villages and 307,011 houses. Average density of population, 578 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 2·32; houses per square mile, 116; persons per village, 249; persons per house, 5. Classified according to sex, there were 782,391 males and 751,540 females; proportion of males in total population, 51 per cent. Classified according to age, there were under 12 years—males, 299,747, and females, 258,677: above 12 years—males, 482,644, and females, 492,863. The ethnical division of the people was returned as follows:—Europeans, 35; Eurasians, 16; and Asiatics, 1,533,880. Belonging to aboriginal tribes, there were 4008; of semi-Hinduized aborigines, 99,800; Hindu castes numbered 430,313; Hindus not recognising caste, 6120; Muhammadans, 993,564; and Burmese (Maghs), 66. The chief aboriginal tribe of the District is the Tipperahs, of whom there were 3004. They have immigrated into the District from the neighbouring State of Hill Tipperah, and do not mix with the Bengálís, but live apart by themselves. A large number of them dwell in the Lálmái Hills, where they are able to carry on undisturbed their own system of *júm* cultivation (for an account of which, see article on the CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS). Their villages are under the control of head-men, who settle all disputes. Many of the Tipperahs are said to have taken refuge in British territory in consequence of raids made by Kukís upon their villages in Hill Tipperah. A full description of this interesting tribe is given by Captain Lewin in his *Hill Tracts of Chittagong*, and will be found quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vi. pp. 482-488. Among semi-Hinduized aboriginal tribes and Hindu castes, the most numerous are—the Chandáls, numbering 81,155; the Jugís, a caste of weavers, 66,812; the Káyasths, or writers, 82,804; and the Kaibarttás, the chief agricultural caste of the District, 53,916. The number of Bráhmans is 31,020. The Hindus, as grouped together on the basis of religion, number 540,156, or 35·2 per cent. of the population, including Tipperahs and other aboriginal tribes. The faith of Islám is professed by the great majority of the people, the number of Musalmáns being 993,564, or 64·8 per cent. of the total population. The remainder of the population consists of 146 Christians (including 95 native converts), and 65 persons of other religions. Among the Muhammadans are about 5000 who belong to the Faráizí sect. Only 2 towns in Tipperah contain more than 5000 inhabitants, namely, COMILLAH (pop. 12,948) and BRAHMANBARIA (pop. 12,364). These are the only two municipalities in the District, and contain an aggregate population of 25,312, leaving 1,508,619 as the strictly rural population. Twenty-four towns

and villages contain a population of between 2000 and 5000 each; 157 have from 1000 to 2000; 529 from 500 to 1000; 1604 from 200 to 500; while 3834 small villages contain fewer than 200 inhabitants. All the above figures include the *thána* of Chhágalnáiyá, transferred in 1876 to Noákhálí District. After all transfers, the Parliamentary Abstract for 1878-79 returned the area at 2460 square miles, and the population at 1,419,229.

Agriculture.—The staple crop of the District is rice, of which two harvests are reaped in the year. The *áus* or early crop is sown in March on low swampy grounds, particularly on alluvial patches in the beds of rivers, and reaped in July and August. The *áman* or cold-weather crop is sown in April and May, or as soon as the rains set in, and reaped in November, December, and January. Of these two harvests, 27 principal varieties are named. Among the other cereals cultivated in Tipperah are a little wheat and barley, sown in November, and reaped about April; Indian corn, raised during the rainy season; and two kinds of millet. The green crops of the District include *tíl* (Sesamum), mustard, and chillies. The latter are grown to a great extent, the Calcutta market being largely supplied with chillies from Tipperah. Peas, gram, and several other pulses are cultivated. The fibres of the District are jute, flax, and hemp; and the miscellaneous crops include betel-leaf and betel-nut, sugar-cane, tobacco, coriander, safflower, turmeric, and ginger. Jute cultivation ranks next in importance to rice in Tipperah, and has much extended of late years. The seed is sown in April, and the crop is cut in August. It is all sent to Dacca and Náráinganj, and thence to Calcutta. Betel-nut palms are extensively cultivated—in some parts of the District even to the exclusion of rice. According to the latest estimate, the total area under cultivation is 1,301,760 acres, of which 1,150,000 are devoted to rice and 78,000 to jute, leaving 73,760 acres for all other crops. Taking the average out-turn of rice as 11 cwts. per acre, and making deductions on account of wastage and for seed grain, it is calculated that the total amount of rice available for food produced in the District is about 600,000 tons. Rates of rent have for several years been steadily rising. In 1858, the average rent for rice land was 4s. 6d. per acre; in 1872, it varied from 2s. 10½d. to 15s. 1½d. The enhancement is attributed to the general rise of prices. In 1859, the price of the best cleaned rice was 2s. 8d. per cwt.; in 1870, it was 5s. 5d. Common rice in the former year sold at 1s. 8d., and paddy at 1s. per cwt.; while in the latter year, the prices were 4s. 1d. for common rice, and 2s. for paddy. Wages have doubled since 1850. In 1871, agricultural day-labourers earned 5½d. a day; blacksmiths and carpenters, 1s.; and bricklayers, 9d.

Natural Calamities.—Tipperah is not specially subject to natural

calamities of any kind. The crops have occasionally suffered from flood or drought, but not to such an extent as to affect the general harvest. Floods are due partly to heavy local rainfall, and partly to the Meghná overflowing its banks. As a protection against the latter cause, embankments have been constructed along the river Gumti; but for these the civil station of Comillah, and the country to the south of the river, would be annually flooded. The highest prices reached in Tipperah during the Orissa famine of 1866 were—for rice, 13s. 8d., and for paddy, 10s. 10d. a cwt. These rates, however, were paid by outsiders; and most of the people continued to eat their rice at the price it cost them to produce it, whilst they received a handsome sum for their surplus stock.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of Tipperah is principally carried on by means of fixed markets, the chief trading villages being situated on the Meghná, Gumti, Titás, Dákátiá, and their tributaries. The principal export of the District is rice, of which it is estimated that on an average 147,000 tons are sent away annually. The bulk of it goes to Náráinganj or Dacca; the remainder to Farídpur, Pabná, and one or two other Districts. The exports next in importance to rice are jute (of which 3676 tons leave the District annually) and betel-nuts. Other exports are safflower, sugar-cane, cocoa-nuts, bullocks, sheep, goats, tamarind, fish-oil, dried fish, hides, mats, chillies, linseed, bamboos, sweet-potatoes, timber, earthen pots, and mustard seed. Kingfishers' skins are sent to Chittagong for exportation to Burma and China. The chief imports are sugar, timber, cotton goods, cocoa-nut oil, bamboos, thatching-grass, spices, salt, tobacco, etc. The value of the exports considerably exceeds that of the imports. The local manufactures are insignificant, consisting chiefly of weaving, pottery, gold, silver, brass and iron work, and mat and basket weaving. Indigo was cultivated and manufactured in the District for a few years; but owing to the determined opposition of the peasantry, the industry was not remunerative, and was abandoned in 1872. Road communication in Tipperah is very deficient, and there is no cart traffic. It is often necessary, in order to reach places not situated on the few lines of road, to travel by elephant or boat. According to the statistics of the Board of Revenue for 1868-69, there were 565 miles of rivers and canals navigable throughout the year, and an additional 177 miles navigable during six months or more.

Administration.—In 1828-29, a few years after the separation of Tipperah from Noákhálí, the net revenue amounted to £88,811, and the expenditure to £13,177. By 1850-51, the revenue had increased to £99,276, and the expenditure to £13,249. Since that date, both revenue and expenditure have greatly increased. In 1860-61, the revenue was £105,302, and in 1870-71, £121,936; the expenditure in

the former year being £33,034, and in the latter, £16,783. It is calculated that the surplus revenue of the District during the twenty-five years 1840-65 aggregated no less than £2,000,000, or an average of £80,000 a year. In 1870-71, the land revenue was £99,860; the number of estates was returned at 1928, and of proprietors at 4660; average amount paid by each estate, £52, and by each proprietor, £21. For police purposes, the District is divided into 11 *thánás* (police circles), with 2 outposts. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 363 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £6780, 16s. There was also a municipal police of 49 men, costing £380, 8s., and a rural police or village watch of 3094 men, costing in money or lands an estimated sum of £10,397. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted in that year of 3506 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 0·75 of a square mile of the area or to every 437 of the population. The estimated total cost was £17,558, 18s., equal to an average of £6, 12s. 3¼d. per square mile of area and 2½d. per head of population. The District jail is at Comillah, and there is also a lock-up at Bráhmanbáriá. In 1856-57, there was only 1 Government school in Tipperah, with 127 pupils. In 1870-71, the number of Government and aided schools was 25, attended by 953 pupils; and since that year, owing to the grant-in-aid system introduced by Sir George Campbell, when Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, education has increased very rapidly. In 1877-78, there were 499 Government aided and inspected schools in the District, attended by 13,697 pupils. The District is divided for administrative purposes into 2 Subdivisions, with their headquarters at Comillah and Bráhmanbáriá. The number of fiscal divisions (*parganás*) is 117.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Tipperah is comparatively mild and healthy. The cold weather is very pleasant, for, although the mornings are foggy, and heavy dews fall at night, the sky is clear during the day-time, and a mild north-west wind generally prevails. During the hot season, too, a sea-breeze usually blows from the south-east. The average annual rainfall at Comillah during the thirteen years ending 1873 was 93·5 inches, of which 24 fell between January and May, and 61 between June and September. The average rainfall in the Bráhmanbáriá Subdivision is returned at 74·95 inches. The chief endemic diseases are fever (remittent and intermittent), rheumatism, bowel complaints, and affections of the skin. Cholera in a more or less epidemic form appears every year, sometimes causing serious mortality. Sanitation in the towns and villages has hitherto been much neglected, and the swampy and malarious nature of the country has doubtless much to do with the prevalence of fever and rheumatism. The District has 4 charitable dispensaries.

Tipperah.—Headquarters Subdivision of Tipperah District, Bengal. Number of villages, 4949; houses, 219,871; pop. (1872), 1,086,649, of whom 331,637 were Hindus, 754,801 Muhammadans, 146 Christians, and 65 of other denominations; proportion of Muhammadans, 69·5 per cent.; proportion of males in total population, 51·2 per cent.; number of persons per village, 200; inmates per house, 4·9. This Subdivision consists of the 9 police circles (*thánás*) of Comillah (Kumillá), Barákámtá, Thollá, Dáúdkándí, Tubkibágará, Hájíganj, Lákshám, Jagannáthdighi, and Chhágalnáiyá. By the transfer of the police circle of Chhágalnáiyá to Noákhálí District in January 1876, the number of villages in the Subdivision was reduced by 200, and the population by 114,702. In 1870-71, it contained 9 magisterial and revenue courts, and a total police force, including both regular and municipal police, of 326 officers and men; the village watch in the same year numbered 2147 men; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £4837.

Tipperah.—Native State in Bengal.—*See* HILL TIPPERAH.

Tiptúr.—Municipal village in Túmkúr District, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 15′ N., and long. 76° 31′ E., 46 miles by road east of Túmkúr town. Headquarters of the Honavalli *táluk*. Pop. (1871), 2093; municipal revenue (1874-75), £42, derived from octroi duties imposed on twelve commodities; rate of taxation, 5d. per head. Seat of a large weekly fair, held from Saturday morning to noon of Sunday, and attended by 10,000 persons, including merchants from the adjoining Districts of Madras and Bombay. The value of the commodities exchanged is estimated at £3000 a week.

Tirhút (*Tirhoot*).—Formerly a District of Bengal, now divided into the two distinct Districts of DARBHANGAH and MUZAFFARPUR, each of which see separately. As Tirhút was one of the best known and most famous Districts of Bengal, and as the name constantly occurs in historical and other works connected with India, it has been thought advisable to give in this place some account of the District as it existed prior to its disintegration on the 1st January 1875.

The tract of country formerly known as Tirhut comprises the north-eastern part of the Patná Division, lying between 25° 28′ and 26° 52″ N. lat., and between 84° 56′ and 86° 46′ E. long. The District was the largest and most populous under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, occupying an area of 6343 square miles, with a population in 1872 of 4,384,706 persons. The three Subdivisions of Muzaffarpur, Hájípur, and Sítámarhi now constitute the District of MUZAFFARPUR which retains the old civil station of Muzaffarpur as its headquarters; while the three Subdivisions of Darbhangah, Madhubani, and Tájpur have been formed into the new District of DARBHANGAH, which has its headquarters at the large town of that name. Tirhút is bounded on the north by the State

of Nepál; on the north-east by the District of Bhágalpur; on the south-east by the District of Monghyr; on the south by the river Ganges; on the south-west by the District of Sáran, the river Gandak forming a natural boundary; and on the north-west by the District of Champáran. The northern frontier between British territory and Nepál is defined by natural and artificial boundary marks.

Physical Aspects.—Tirhút is a vast alluvial plain, intersected with streams, and in most parts well wooded. Frequent groves of mango and clusters of bamboo give a pleasing character to the scenery. In the south-west, the lands are high and fertile. In the north and east, they are low and marshy, and more unhealthy than other parts of the District. In some tracts, an enormous stretch of uninterrupted rice-fields meets the eye. In many places the soil is saliferous, and the extraction of saltpetre and salt affords employment to the poorest class of people. The rivers flow on raised beds, which they have gradually constructed for themselves out of the silt they bring down from the mountains of Nepál. Generally speaking, these rivers are ill suited for navigation, and are rarely navigable except during the rainy season, and at that period are mostly rapid and dangerous.

Population.—The earlier estimates of the population were much below the mark. The Census of 1872 showed that the population amounted to the enormous total of 4,384,706 persons, inhabiting 642,087 houses and 7337 villages. The density of the population was 691 persons per square mile. The total number of males was 2,191,764, and of females, 2,192,942; the proportions thus being almost exactly the same. The Muhammadans form about one-eighth of the whole population. They numbered 528,605 persons, while the Hindus amounted to 3,854,991, or about 88 per cent. Bráhmans numbered 183,777, of whom about one-half are found in the Darbhangah and Madhubani Subdivisions, known as Tirhutíyá Bráhmans. They are badly off, and during the famine of 1874 were in great straits, as for some time they entirely refused to join the relief works. Rájputs numbered 225,419. Of intermediate castes, Bábhans (318,597) are the most numerous. Although lower than Bráhmans or Rájputs, they nevertheless enjoy a higher rank than the Súdra castes, and are found in great numbers in south-east Tirhút and the adjacent District of Monghyr. The Káyasth or writer caste (70,992) comes next. The Goála (526,683) is the herdsman caste. Koerís (227,046) are the best spade-husbandmen in the country; they are identical with the Kachís of the North-Western Provinces, and are the chief cultivators of the poppy. Kurmís (142,303), though generally engaged in agriculture, make good soldiers, and were a good deal employed as such before the Mutiny. Chamárs (171,793) are the men who skin cattle, prepare hides, and work in leather; the man who does the shoemaker's work is called a *muchi.* The Chamár is

a member of the village organization; like the *chaukídár* or *goráit*, he holds his small piece of land, and always posts up official notices. His wife, the Chamáin, is the village midwife. Dosadhs (296,107) are the ordinary labouring class in Tirhút; they have almost monopolized the office of *chaukídár* or village watchman, yet many of them are either thieves or the abettors of thieves.

In 1874, at the time of the famine relief operations, another Census was taken, with the aid of the existing relief agency, in the Subdivision of Darbhangah. The result of this Census showed a population of 1,003,866, as against 867,909 returned in 1872 for this tract; and it is probable that, owing to more complete supervision, the larger figures obtained upon the later occasion are more correct.

There are 26 towns or collections of villages returned in the Census Report of 1872 as having a population of more than 5000 inhabitants; three of these contain over 20,000 but less than 50,000. The principal towns in the District are DARBHANGAH (47,450), MUZAFFARPUR (38,223), HAJIPUR (22,306), LALGANJ (12,338), RUSERA (9441), and SITAMARHI (5496), all under municipal government. There is no tendency in the population of Tirhút to gather into cities.

Village Institutions.—Nearly every village has its *patwári* or accountant, its *jeth ráyat* or head-man, and other officials. The duties of the *patwári* are to keep the village accounts, to grant receipts, and sometimes to collect rents. The *jeth ráyats* are always well-to-do persons, cultivating the largest holdings in their villages, and are the referees and arbiters in case of village disputes. Other village officers are the Bráhman priest, the barber, the washerman, the blacksmith, and the village watchman.

Agriculture.—Taking the gross area of the District at 4,058,050 acres, it is estimated that 3,097,139 acres are under cultivation. Of this area, again, 1,714,248 acres are said to be sown with rice. The food of the cultivator consists, roughly speaking, half of rice, and half of coarser cereals, millets, and pulses. The staple food of all classes in the north-east part of the District is rice. Wheat, barley, and oats are sown on the high lands, and in many cases require irrigation. Indian corn or *makái* is largely cultivated in Muzaffarpur. Of non-edible crops, oil-seeds, especially linseed, are the most important. The principal cultivation of tobacco in Behar is in Tirhút. The best tobacco comes from Sareja, in the Tájpur Subdivision, which is famous for the good quality of the leaf. About 50,000 opium *bíghas*, equivalent to rather more than 30,000 acres, are ordinarily under cultivation with poppy on account of Government. The area under indigo is estimated to be 97,000 acres, or about 2½ per cent. of the total area of the District. Manure is largely used by indigo planters and the cultivators of tobacco. After the indigo leaves have been steeped, the refuse is taken out

of the vats and spread over the fields, forming a most valuable manure. Tobacco lands are generally selected near a village, so that cattle may be tethered on them, and that they may receive all sorts of household waste. Rotation of crops is not practised, and most fields have to give two crops annually. But tobacco and opium lands, except those of first-rate quality, are usually allowed to remain fallow for half the year. Lands which have become exhausted by indigo are yet often able to produce first-class food crops, which do not draw their support from the subsoil, to which the tap root of the indigo plant penetrates.

Scarcely any intermediate tenures are found between the landholder and the actual cultivator; but nearly every village has its rent-free tenures, or lands given either to Bráhmans or to Muhammadan saints. The principal features in Tirhút estates are their small average size, the prevalence of the farming system, and the custom of paying rents in kind. The average size of estates is 303 acres. This circumstance is due to landholders having taken advantage of the *batwára* or partition law. During the year 1870, no fewer than 1127 estates were added to the Tirhút register. Towards the north of the District, a farmer's holding is considered large if he cultivates more than 50 acres, and small if he only ploughs 7 or 8. In that part of the District, about 18 acres would make a comfortable sized holding. But in the south of Tirhút, where the lands are high-lying, pay large rents, and produce two or more crops a year, a holding of 30 acres would be considered large. Here the population is very dense, and the demand for land keen. A man with 11 acres would be considered well off. The cultivators are nearly always in debt, and the great majority ot them are tenants-at-will. Rates of rent vary not only according to the character and situation of the land, but also according to the caste and position of the cultivator. Thus a high-caste man pays less than a Kurmí. As an example of lands paying high rents, those near Hájípur may be taken. Tobacco lands often fetch £1, 14s. per acre. Ordinarily speaking, first-class high land, on which poppy and tobacco are grown, fetches from 7s. 6d. to 12s. 6d. per acre; other high land, from 5s. to 12s. per acre; and first-class rice land, from 7s. 6d. to 15s. per acre. Wages, compared with those of Lower Bengal, are undoubtedly low. A coolie earns from 2¼d. to 4½d. per day. Agricultural labourers usually receive their wages partly in cash and partly in kind. In harvest time, a labourer is remunerated by a share of the crop, varying from 5 to 6 per cent. Carpenters and smiths get from 2¼d. to 4½d. per day in the country, and from 3d. to 6d. in the towns. It appears from the early records that wages have risen very slightly. In 1794, coolies were paid about 1¾d. per day; carpenters, about 3d. The ordinary price of cleaned rice in ordinary use is 4s. per cwt.; of wheat, 4s. 6d.; and of salt, 14s. 6d. Generally speaking, a rate of 6s. 9d. for common rice in

January would be held to indicate the approach of distress later in the year.

Natural Calamities.—The District is subject to flood, and occasionally to drought. In the case of floods, whatever harm is done is often amply made up by the splendid crops afterwards produced. The earliest famine of which any details are known is that of 1866. This famine was severely felt in Tirhút, both as regards its intensity and the wide area over which it spread. The total number of deaths from starvation and disease, engendered by want, was estimated at over sixty thousand.

The scarcity of 1874 was felt with greater severity in Tirhút than in any other part of Bengal. The price of common rice, which was, in Darbhangah, 10·3 *sers* per rupee (about 11s. per cwt.) in January, rose to 9·1 *sers* per rupee (12s. 4d. per cwt.) in March, 8·9 *sers* (12s. 7d.) in April, and 8·3 *sers* (13s. 6d.) in May. In June, the price had returned to very nearly what it was in January, and after that month it fell steadily until it reached 5s. 10d. per cwt. in November and 4s. 10d. in December. In Muzaffarpur, the highest price reached by rice was somewhat lower than in Darbhangah. In April and May, common rice sold in this part of Tirhút at 12s. 5d. per cwt. In June, prices recovered here as in Darbhangah, and continued to fall steadily until the end of the year. Relief works on an enormous scale were organized, including the Darbhangah State Railway. The following figures very briefly epitomize the expenditure of grain and money in the two Districts of Darbhangah and Muzaffarpur.

In Darbhangah—total grain expenditure incurred for the relief of distress during the famine of 1874, 79,870 tons; total money expenditure due to the famine, £347,933, of which £17,325 was distributed in gratuitous relief, £11,725 advanced on recoverable loan, and £318,883 paid as wages on relief works. A statement, based on the actual number of people assisted by Government during the famine, but supposed to have exhausted such assistance in one month of thirty days, shows a total of 5,018,516 persons 'relieved in one month.' The entire population of Darbhangah could, it was calculated, have existed on the assistance afforded for two months and five days.

In Muzaffarpur—total grain expenditure incurred during the famine of 1874, 47,069 tons; total money expenditure due to the famine, £146,365, of which £14,171 was expended on charitable relief, £22,125 advanced on recoverable loan, and £110,068 paid away as wages. An analysis of Mr. MacDonnell's statement of persons charitably relieved in Muzaffarpur shows that the statement is equivalent, so far as mere numbers are concerned, to saying that a daily number of 174,395 individuals were relieved for one month; and a similar analysis of the labour statement reduces it in effect to a

statement that 1,124,635 individuals were relieved (in money or grain) for one month.

For a detailed account of the statistical aspects of the famine, the reader is referred to Mr. A. P. MacDonnell's *Report on the Food-Grain Supply and Statistical Review of the Relief Operations in the Distressed Districts of Behar and Bengal* (Calcutta, 1876).

Manufactures, Trade, etc.—The principal manufactures of Tirhút are indigo, saltpetre, coarse cloth, pottery, and mats. Indigo is a very important industry. The average out-turn is estimated to exceed 20,000 factory *maunds* (of 74 lbs. 10 oz. each); and in the exceptionally successful season of 1873, the out-turn was 29,481 factory *maunds*. There are 42 concerns in Tirhút, of which 25 are principal factories, and 17 outworks. The manufacture of saltpetre is based on a system of advances. The large houses of business contract with middle-men, who give advances to the village Nuniyás. These last, a poor and hardy race of labourers, rent a small site of saliferous earth, collect the earth into large shallow pans, puddle it and drain off the water with the saline matter in it into earthen vessels, and then boil and strain it. The crude saltpetre thus manufactured is sold to the refiners, by whom is prepared the saltpetre of commerce.

The trade of the District is large. There are two great currents of river-borne export traffic, the one from Muzaffarpur flowing in a south-westerly, and the other from Darbhangah in a south-easterly direction. The first current is attracted to, and absorbed in, Patná, while the second finds its way direct to Calcutta. The trade with Patná is especially brisk during the cold and hot seasons of the year, when there is little water in the small rivers; but during the rains, the trade with Calcutta is comparatively more important. The total registered trade of Tirhút during 1876-77 is stated thus:—Exports, £1,113,824; imports, £926,279. The details of the trade are—exports of Muzaffarpur District, £792,108; imports, £676,734; exports of Darbhangah District, £321,716; imports, £249,545. The indigo exported from Tirhút is valued at £360,000. Oil-seeds are the next most important export in value, and by far the most important in bulk. The total in 1876-77 was 636,605 *maunds*, or 466,085 cwts., valued at £249,500. The value of saltpetre exported was £127,000. The total export of tobacco was 301,700 *maunds*, or 220,887 cwts., valued at £130,000. Among imports, food grains assume the foremost place. For the whole of Tirhút, the imports in 1876-77 were 1,494,400 *maunds*, and the exports, 115,700 *maunds;* thus showing a difference of 1,378,700 *maunds* supplied by importation, a total larger than any other District in Behar or Bengal. Even after making allowances for a partial scarcity that prevailed during the year, it is evident that Tirhút is a food-importing District. At the same time, it is a fact that north-east Tirhút is

ordinarily a large exporting tract. But no system of river registration can catch the traffic in food grain from the Madhubani, Darbhangah, and Sítámarhi Subdivisions, because such traffic is only to an inconsiderable extent river-borne. Of other imports into the District, the most important are salt and European cotton piece-goods; but in both cases the figures indicate some deficiency of registration. The principal river marts in Tirhút District are—Hájípur—exports, £278,759; imports, £249,073: Lálganj—exports, £107,284; imports, £112,515: Rusera—exports, £137,187; imports, £59,937: Darbhangah—exports, £80,032; imports, £30,566.

The State railway from Darbhangah to Bájitpur, on the bank of the Ganges, a distance of 48 miles, is now in full working order. This line, which was originally constructed as a temporary work during the famine season of 1874, has been made permanent, and a branch has also been thrown out from Samástipur to Muzaffarpur. Tirhút is well provided with roads, which are partly due to the improvements in the means of communication effected during the famine of 1874, but also to the activity of the indigo planters at an earlier period.

There are two societies in Muzaffarpur, the Dharma Samáj and the Behar Scientific Society. The first of these is an orthodox Hindu institution, and had, in 1871, 266 members. The other society is principally composed of Muhammadans; its main objects are to encourage education and the spread of knowledge. In 1871, this body had 511 members. It supports a school, and a newspaper called the *Akbár-al-Akyár*, which is printed in the Urdu character. There are 5 printing presses in the District.

Administration.—The gross revenue of Tirhút District was £118,822 in 1795, £181,457 in 1850, and £236,714 in 1870. On the other hand, the civil expenditure, according to the local records, increased from £23,180 in 1795 to £29,770 in 1850, and to £56,178 in 1870. The land tax forms as usual by far the largest proportion of the revenue; it amounted in 1870 to £174,592. Subdivision of property has gone on at a rapid rate. In 1790, there were 1331 estates, held by 1939 registered proprietors, who paid a total Government revenue of £108,061, equal to an average payment of £55, 14s. by each registered proprietor, and £81, 13s. by each estate. In 1870-71, there were 11,500 estates and 73,416 proprietors or coparceners, paying a total revenue of £174,592. The average revenue payable by each estate was £15, 3s. 7d.; by each proprietor or coparcener, £2, 7s. 6d. Next after the land tax comes the stamp revenue, which yielded in 1870-71 £32,622, and excise, which yielded £17,259. The amount of protection to person and property has steadily increased. In 1800, there were 2 magisterial and 2 civil and revenue courts in the District; in 1870, there were 10 magisterial, 8

civil, and 6 revenue courts. In 1870-71, the strength of the regular police was 107 officers and 528 constables, maintained at a total cost of £13,901; the municipal police consisted of 19 officers and 295 men, at a cost of £2260; the village watch, not subject to the rules of the regular police, numbered 9945 men, and cost £21,939. The whole police force, therefore, amounted to 10,894 officers and men, at a total cost of £38,100, equal to a charge of 2d. per head of the population of the District. In 1870-71, the daily average number of prisoners in jail was 416. The Muzaffarpur jail is a most unhealthy one, and the death-rate remains at an average of nearly 12 per cent. The number of Government and aided schools was only 1 in 1856-57, and 26 in 1870-71. By 1877-78, the total number of schools in the Districts of Muzaffarpur and Darbhangah had risen to 539, attended by 16,899 pupils. It has already been stated that there are 6 municipalities in Tirhút. Their aggregate population is 135,254; their gross municipal income, £4975, and their expenditure, £3734; the rate of taxation per head is 7½d.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Tirhút is considered healthy. The range of the thermometer is not so wide as in the south of the Patná Division; and though the heat is greater than in the deltaic Districts of Bengal proper, the dryness of the atmosphere renders its effect less enervating. There are no figures in the meteorological department showing the temperature in Tirhút; but in the hot weather, the thermometer rises considerably above 100° F. in the shade. The average annual rainfall for the eleven years preceding 1871 was 50 inches.

Tirí.—Capital of TEHRI or ORCHHA STATE, North-Western Provinces.—*See* TEHRI.

Tirkanambi (prop. *Trikadamba-pura*, 'The city of the consort of the three-eyed Siva').—Village in Mysore District, Mysore State. Lat. 11° 49′ N., long. 76° 51′ E.; pop. (1871), 1964. The site of an ancient city. Its original name is said to have been Kudugallúr, so called from having been founded on the threefold boundary between the kingdoms of Kongu, Kerala, and Kadamba. The early history is obscure. The fort was destroyed by the Marhattás in 1747. Remains of five lines of fortification are still to be seen, and the site of the palace is also pointed out. Twelve temples still exist, constructed of huge blocks of stone carefully fitted together. Their origin is lost in antiquity, but several of them contain inscriptions more than three centuries old, conferring grants of land. In the neighbourhood are many old tanks, now disused.

Tirkherí Malpurí.—Estate in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; comprising 7 villages, the largest of which is Tirkherí. Area, 15 square miles, of which only 4 are cultivated. Tirkherí lies to the east, and Malpurí to the west of the Kámthá *parganá*. The estate contains

much forest, but little good timber. Estimated pop. (1868), 1950, chiefly Ponwárs and Kunbís.

Tirtháhalli.—Municipal village in Shimogá District, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 41′ N., and long. 75° 17′ E., on the left bank of the Tungá river, 30 miles south-west of Shimogá town. Headquarters of the Kavaledurga *táluk*. Pop. (1871), 1286, of whom 1040 are Hindus, 111 Muhammadans, and 135 Christians; municipal revenue (1874-75), £295; rate of taxation, 4s. 7d. per head. Derives its name from the number of *tirthas* or sacred bathing-places in the Tunga. One of the hollows scooped out by the rushing water is ascribed to the axe of Parasu-ráma; and at the *Rámeswára* festival, held for three days in the month Márgashira, thousands of persons bathe in this hole. The occasion is utilized for purposes of trade, and goods to the value of £30,000 are estimated to change hands at this time. The chief articles of import are cocoa-nuts and cocoa-nut oil, pulse, piece-goods, and cattle. There are two *máths* or religious establishments in the village, and several others in the neighbourhood, which lay claim to a fabulous antiquity, and are frequented by the members of various special castes.

Tiruchendúr (*Trichendoor*).—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras; situated on the coast, in lat. 8° 29′ 50″ N., and long. 78° 10′ 30″ E., 18 miles south of Tuticorin. Pop. (1871), 7051, inhabiting 1834 houses. Tiruchendúr contains a wealthy and much frequented temple (with an interesting inscription), built out into the sea. Annual cattle fair.

Tiruchengod (*Tirushenkodu*, *Trichengode*).—Chief town of the *táluk* of the same name, Salem District, Madras; situated in lat. 11° 22′ 45″ N., and long. 77° 56′ 20″ E., 7 miles from Sankaridrug, at the foot of a huge rock, on the summit of which is a temple of some repute. Pop. (1871), 6153, inhabiting 1203 houses. There is also an important temple in the town.

Tirukovilúr.—Town in South Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 11° 57′ 55″ N., long. 79° 14′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 4340, inhabiting 687 houses. Deputy Collector's station.

Tirumale.—Village in Bangalore District, Mysore. Pop. (1871), 2109. A large festival or *parishe*, held for ten days from the full moon in Chaitra (April), in honour of the god Ranganáth-swámí, is attended by 10,000 persons.

Tirumanai Muttár (‘*The River of the Pearl Necklace*’).—River in Salem District, Madras. Rising in the Shevaroy Hills, it flows past the town of Salem, south through Tiruchengod and Námakal *táluks*, into the Káveri (Cauvery). A valuable source of irrigation.

Tirumangalam.—Chief town of Tirumangalam *táluk*, Madura District, Madras. Lat. 9° 49′ 20″ N., long. 78° 1′ 10″ E.; pop. (1871), 5772, inhabiting 795 houses. An early Vellála colony, dating from 1566.

Tirumúrtikovil.—Village in Coimbatore District, Madras; situated in lat. 10° 27′ N., and long. 77° 12′ E.; containing a venerated shrine of the Hindu triad, with interesting rock sculptures. Pilgrims visit the shrine on Sundays all the year round. There is one large annual festival. The temple is built exactly on the watershed; that part of the stream on which it is situated flows into the Arabian Sea, and the other part, diverted by a dam, flows into a feeder of the Káveri (Cauvery), and thence into the Bay of Bengal.

Tirupasúr.—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras.—*See* TRIPASUR.

Tirupati (the '*Tripetty*' of Orme).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras; situated in lat. 13° 38′ N., and long. 79° 27′ 50″ E., 80 miles from Madras city. Pop. (1871), 10,423, inhabiting 2735 houses. Tirupati is celebrated for its hill pagoda, in some respects the most sacred in southern India. The chief temple is 8 miles distant, but the *annexes* and outer entrances of the ascent begin about a mile from the town. The deity worshipped is one of the incarnations of Vishnu, and so holy is his shrine that no Christian or Musalmán is allowed to pass even the outer walls. In the course of inquiry into a murder case, however, in 1870, an English magistrate entered the precincts. From all parts of India, thousands of pilgrims flock to Tirupati with rich offerings to the idol. Up to 1843 the pagoda was under the management of the British Government, who derived a considerable revenue from the offerings of the pilgrims. Now, however, the whole is given over to the *mahant* or Bráhman abbot. The annual festival held here is very large, and to it (in 1772) is attributed the first recorded cholera epidemic in India. There are several smaller temples, at which the pilgrims also pay their devotions. But the great temple is great only in its traditions. Those who have seen it describe it as mean in its proportions and very much neglected. The town of Lower Tirupati is situated in the valley, some 5 miles broad, between the Tirupati Hills and those of the Kárvaitnagar *zamíndárí*. Along this valley flows the Suvarnamúkhí river, which passes about a mile to the south of the town. Lower Tirupati is a flourishing and busy place, crowded at all times with pilgrims. At the neighbouring village of Karkumbádi is a railway station, with a yearly traffic of 120,000 passengers to and from Tirupati. The hill on which the great pagoda stands is about 2500 feet above sea level. It has seven peaks, and that crowned by the pagoda is named Srí-venkatarámanachellam.

Tirupatúr (*Tripatúr*).—Chief town of Tirupatúr *táluk*, Salem District, Madras. Lat. 12° 29′ 40″ N., long. 78° 36′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 12,837, inhabiting 2823 houses. Tirupatúr is the headquarters of the Head Assistant Collector of the District, and contains the usual Government offices, hospital, 2 Christian missions, telegraph office, and railway station. It is one of the most important towns in the District,

and the centre of a network of roads; a brisk trade in grain and hides is carried on here. The railway returns for 1875 show 76,000 passengers, 17,692 tons of goods, and an income of £14,500. The tank is one of the largest in the District. Tirupatúr was captured by the British and retaken by Haidar Ali in 1767.

Tirupur (*Avenashi Road*).—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 11° 37′ N., long. 77° 40′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 3903, inhabiting 742 houses. Railway station, and headquarters of the Head Assistant Collector of the District.

Tirushavaperúr.—Town in Cochin State, Madras.—*See* TRICHUR.

Tirusiráppalli.—District and town in Madras.—*See* TRICHINOPOLI.

Tirutani (*Tritani*).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 13° 10′ 20″ N., long. 79° 38′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 2232, inhabiting 294 houses. Tirutani contains a temple much frequented by pilgrims, and there is a festival once a month. The railway returns show 106,000 passengers per annum.

Tiruvádi (*Trivadi*).—Sacred town in Tanjore District, Madras; situated on the river Káveri (Cauvery) 6 miles north of Tanjore city, in lat. 10° 52′ 45″ N., and long. 79° 8′ E. Pop. (1871), 6896, inhabiting 1267 houses. Sivají halted here in his first descent on Tanjore.

Tiruvádi (*Trivadi*).—Town in Cuddalore *táluk*, South Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 11° 46′ N., long. 79° 36′ 35″ E.; pop. (1871), 4143; inhabiting 566 houses. Except as the seat of a sub-magistrate, Tiruvádi is now of no importance; but on account of its position, 15 miles from Fort St. David, it was the scene of frequent fighting during the wars of the last century. The French occupied it in 1750; Lawrence captured it in 1752. In the following year it was three times attacked by the French; the third time successfully. In 1760, it again fell into the hands of the English.

Tiruvakarai (*Trivacari*).—Ruined town in South Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 12° 1′ 30″ N., long. 79° 43′ E. Though now containing only a few huts, there are indications in the pagoda, tank, and deserted streets that a large town once existed on this site. A number of petrified trees have been discovered on a mound in the neighbourhood.

Tiruválúr.—Chief town of Tiruválúr *táluk*, Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras, and a station on the Madras Railway; situated in lat. 13° 8′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 57′ 20″ E., 30 miles west of Madras. Pop. (1871), 4785, inhabiting 744 houses. Tiruválúr has a police station, District *munsif's* court, post and telegraph offices; it is an important religious centre, and contains a large but unfinished Vaishnav pagoda. The public offices occupy a building of unusually handsome style.

Tiruvanantapuram.—Town in Travancore State, Madras.—*See* TRIVANDRUM.

Tiruvankod (*Tiruvidankodu* or *Travancore*).—Town in the Eraniel District of Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 8° 13′ N., long. 77° 18′ E.; pop. (1871), 2351, inhabiting 464 houses. Only noticeable as being the town from which the State takes its name, and the former seat of government.

Tiruvannámalai (*Trinomalai*).—Chief town of the *táluk* of the same name, South Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 12° 13′ 56″ N., long. 79° 6′ 43″ E.; pop. (1871), 9312, inhabiting 1243 houses. Tiruvannámalai is the first town on the road from the Báramahál through the Chengama Pass, and roads diverge north, south, and to the coast. It is thus an entrepôt of trade between South Arcot and the country above the Gháts, and its fortified hill (2668 feet above sea level) was always an important military point. Between 1753 and 1791, it was besieged on ten separate occasions, and was six times taken, thrice by assault. From 1760, it was a British post, on which Colonel Smith fell back in 1767, as he retired through the Chengama Pass before Haidar Alí and the Nizám. Here he held out till reinforced, when he signally defeated the allies. The last time it was taken was in 1791 by Tipú. There is a fine and richly endowed temple, the annual festival at which, in November, is the most largely attended in the District.

Tiruvárúr.—Town in Tanjore District, Madras; situated in lat. 10° 46′ 37″ N., and long. 79° 40′ 34″ E., 16 miles south-west of Negapatam. Pop. (1871), 8560, inhabiting 1620 houses.

Tiruvattúr.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 12° 38′ 30″ N., long. 79° 36′ E.; pop. (1871), 1311, inhabiting 196 houses. Tiruvattúr contains a highly venerated temple.

Tiruvengudam.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 9° 15′ 50″ N., long. 77° 44′ E.; pop. (1871), 8241, inhabiting 1881 houses.

Tístá (*Teesta*, *Trisrotá*).—A large river of Northern Bengal. It rises in the Chatámu Lake, Tibet, but is said to have another source below Kánchanjangá in Independent Sikkim. After passing through and draining Independent Sikkim, the Tístá touches the British District of Dárjíling on its northern frontier, marking the boundary between Dárjíling and Sikkim for some distance, till it receives the waters of the Great Ranjít, in lat. 27° 6′ N., long. 88° 29′ E., when it turns to the south, and, after flowing through the hill portion of Dárjíling District, passes through Jalpáigurí and Rangpur, and finally falls into the Brahmaputra below Bagwá in the District of Rangpur.

The Tístá is not navigable by trading boats in its course through the hills, although canoes, roughly cut from the *sál* timber on its banks, have been taken down the river from a point some 8 miles above the plains. The Tístá debouches on the plains through a gorge known as the Sivak Golá Pass. At this point the river has a width of 700 or

800 yards, and becomes navigable for boats of 50 *maunds* or 2 tons burthen; but for some distance navigation is very difficult and precarious, owing to the rapids and the numerous rocks and large stones in the bed of the river. After a short course through the *tarái*, the Tístá passes into Jalpáigurí District, which it enters at its north-western corner. It flows in a south-easterly direction, and forms the boundary of the Western Dwárs, dividing them from the permanently settled portion of the District, which, previous to 1869, belonged to Rangpur. After passing through Jalpáigurí, it enters the State of Kuch-Behar at Bakshíganj, and after traversing a very small portion of the State, leaves it at Jhai Sinheswar. Entering Rangpur about 6 miles north of the village of Baruní, it flows across that District from north-west to south-east, till it falls into the Brahmaputra a few miles to the south-west of Chilmári police station in Bhawáníganj Subdivision; its length within Rangpur District is estimated at about 110 miles. It has here a fine channel, from 600 to 800 yards wide, containing a large volume of water at all times of the year, and a rapid current. Although reported capable of floating large trading boats of 100 *maunds*, or between 3 and 4 tons burden, at all seasons, navigation becomes difficult in the cold weather, on account of the shoals and quicksands which form at its junction with the Brahmaputra. Several islands and sandbanks are formed by the current, but these are fewer in number and of much smaller size than those in the Brahmaputra. The bed of the river is of sand. The lower part of the Tístá, from Kapásiá to Nalganj-hát, is also called the Paglá river.

The Tístá is noted for frequent and violent changes in its course; and many old channels are found, such as the Chhotá Tístá, Burá Tístá, and Mará Tístá, each of which at one time must have formed the main channel of the river, but which are now deserted, and only navigable in the rainy season. At the time of Major Rennell's Survey (1764-72), the main stream of the Tístá flowed south instead of south-east as at present, joining the Atrái in Dinájpur, and finally fell into the Padmá or Ganges. In the destructive floods of 1194 B.S., or 1787 A.D., which form an epoch in the history of Rangpur, the stream suddenly forsook its channel, and turned its waters into a small branch marking one of its own ancient beds. Running south-east into the Brahmaputra, it forced its way through the fields and over the country in every direction, and filled the Ghágháṭ, Manás, and other rivers to overflowing. It is impossible to say when the Tístá had previously deserted its ancient course, to which it reverted in 1787. Since the great change of that year, the river has made for itself another channel. The Collector, Mr. Glazier, states: 'In the early part of this century, it [the Tístá] forsook a westward bend of about 40 miles in the upper part of its course, taking a less circuitous

bend in the opposite direction. It has since adhered to the course then formed, but with alarming encroachments on its sandy banks in several places. A large mart, Gorámárá, on the western bank, has been pushed gradually backward, until not a vestige remains of the village from which it takes its name.' The confusion in the nomenclature of the rivers in the west of Rangpur District is mainly caused by these frequent changes in the course of the Tístá.

In Dárjíling District, the principal tributaries of the Tístá are, on its left bank, the Ráng-chu, which falls into it on the northern boundary, and the Roli, which flows through the north-eastern part of the District; and on its right bank, the Great Ranjít, which after flowing through Independent Sikkim joins the Tístá on the northern boundary of Dárjíling, the Rangjo, the Ráyeng, and the Sivak. The banks of the Tístá are here precipitous; its bed is rocky in the hills and sandy in the plains. The summits of its banks are clothed with forests of *sál* and other trees. It is not fordable within Dárjíling District at any time of the year. Its waters are usually of a sea-green colour; but after rain, owing probably to the admixture of calcareous detritus, they occasionally assume a milky hue. A ride along the banks of the Tístá through the Dárjíling Hills, from Sivak at the base of the mountains, upwards to the confluence of the river with the Great Ranjít on the northern boundary of the District, well repays a lover of the picturesque. The thickly wooded banks at once afford shelter from the heat, and form a scenery which charms the eye; while the stream itself, now gurgling in its rocky bed, and anon forming still, deep pools, with the background of hill stretching beyond hill, make up a picture of natural scenery rarely witnessed in India. In Jalpáigurí, the principal tributaries, all on the left or east bank of the river, are the Lesu or Lish, the Ghish, the Sáldanga, and the Dhallá. In Rangpur District, the Tístá receives numerous small tributary streams from the north-west, and also throws off many offshoots of more or less importance. The largest of these is the Ghághát. The Manás is another branch of the Tístá, which rejoins the parent stream after a winding course of about 25 miles.

Reference has been made to the floods of 1787, which resulted in a calamitous famine. The following account is extracted *verbatim* from the Collector's Report :—

'The Tístá, at all times an erratic river, had for long rolled its main stream through the western part of Rangpur and through Dinájpur, till it mingled its waters with the Atrái and other streams, and finally made its way into the Padmá or Ganges. At the same time, it threw off a small branch in the northern part of Rangpur, which found its way by a circuitous course past Ulípur to the main stream of the Brahmaputra, a little farther north than the place where the waters of the

Ghághát found an exit into the same river. Suddenly the main branch of the Tístá, swelled by the incessant rains, swept down from the hills such vast masses of sand as to form a bar in its course, and, bursting its banks, the Tístá forced its way into the Ghághát. The channel of this latter stream was utterly inadequate to carry off such a vast accession to its waters; the water of the Tístá, accordingly, spread itself over the whole District, causing immense destruction to life and property, until it succeeded in cutting for itself a new and capacious channel, through which the river now flows. This great inundation occurred on the 27th August; and on the 2d September, the Collector reported to the Board of Revenue that "multitudes of men, women, children, and cattle have perished in the floods; and in many places whole villages have been so completely swept away, as not to leave the smallest trace whereby to determine that the ground has been occupied." These calamities culminated in a famine. The coarsest rice, which had before been extraordinarily cheap, rose rapidly in price to from 23 to 20 *sers* per rupee (from 4s. 9d. to 5s. 5d. per cwt.), and was difficult to procure even at this rate. The Collector endeavoured to alleviate the distress by stopping all exportation of grain, and caused large quantities of rice to be transported from the large grain marts into the interior of the District, where it was most wanted; but this embargo was taken off by order of the Board of Revenue early in October. Collections of revenue were suspended for a period of two months; and provision was made for feeding the starving poor who were daily flocking into the town.

'The waters at last subsided, leaving the *kharíf* crop, which at first had given promise of an excellent harvest, considerably injured, but not wholly destroyed, as had been anticipated. Six weeks of fine weather and the most careful attention to the young crop raised the expectation that the harvest yet might be a fair one. But the calamities of the season were not yet over, and a cyclone next swept over the stricken country. Early on the morning of the 2d November, just as the rice was getting into ear, the wind began to blow with great violence from the north-east, attended by heavy rain, and continued to increase in force until the afternoon, when it suddenly changed to the east, and came on to blow a furious hurricane, which lasted for about ten hours. Hundreds of trees were blown down or torn up by the roots; the bungalows of the Europeans were almost all unroofed, and scarcely a thatched house was left standing. Upwards of six thousand poor were at this time in receipt of daily rations of rice at the civil station, and of these, forty died in the course of the night near the Collector's house. The mortality in the town of Rangpur was much greater. It was estimated that in the course of this disastrous year Rangpur District lost one-sixth of its inhabitants. In *parganá* Pangá, half the population were gone.'

This flood resulted in numerous important changes in the course of the Tístá. These changes have left in the west of Rangpur District a maze of old water-courses and stagnant marshes, so as to render it nearly impossible to trace the course of the former rivers. In many parts of its course, the Karátoyá is still known as the Burá or Old Tístá; and its broad sandy channel in many places indicates the route followed by the Tístá, before the great changes caused by the inundation in 1787. Major Rennel's Atlas of 1770 shows the old course of the river, and at page 352 of his *Memoir of a Map of Hindustán* he states: 'The Tístá is a large river which runs almost parallel to the Ganges for nearly 150 miles. During the dry season, the waters of the Tístá run into those of the Ganges by two distinct channels situated about 20 miles from each other, and a third channel at the same time discharges itself into the Meghná; but during the season of the floods, the Ganges drives back the Tístá, whose outlet is then confined to the channel that communicates with the Meghná.'

The Tístá is navigable throughout the lower part of its course by steamers of light draught during the greater part of the year; but owing to the shoals and quicksands which form at its junction with the Brahmaputra, the navigation at that point is dangerous in the cold weather.

The Sanskrit names for the Tístá are Trishna and Trisrotá; the former implying 'thirst,' the latter, 'three springs.' The Kálí *Purána* gives the following account of its origin:—'The goddess Párvatí, wife of Siva, was fighting with a demon (Asur), whose crime was that he would only worship her husband and not herself. The monster becoming thirsty during the combat, prayed to his patron deity for drink; and in consequence, Siva caused the river Tístá to flow from the breast of the goddess in three streams, and thus it has ever since continued to flow.'

Tisuá.—Village and battle-field in Bareilly (Bareli) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 8′ N., and long. 79° 38′ 25″ E., 18 miles south-east of Bareilly city, on the Fatehgarh road. In 1774, the British troops under Colonel Champion, supporting the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, gained a decisive victory over the Rohillas at this spot.

Titágarh.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, and a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, 13½ miles from Calcutta; situated in lat. 22° 44′ N., and long. 88° 26′ E., between Khardah and Barrackpur. It contains several country residences of European gentlemen. Though now an unimportant place, Titágarh was seventy years ago a scene of life and activity. It possessed a dockyard, from which the largest merchant vessel ever built on the Húgli was launched—the *Countess of Sutherland*, of 1455 tons. No vestige of the dockyard remains at the present day.

Titályá.—Town in Jalpáigurí District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 29′ 35″ N., long. 88° 22′ 50″ E. Scene of an important fair, founded by Dr. Campbell, the first Superintendent of Dárjíling, for the purpose of promoting trade between the inhabitants of the hill tracts and of the plains; also one of the principal seats of permanent commerce in the District. The fair is held in February or March, at the time of the *Dol-jatra* festival, and lasts for fifteen days.

Titás.—River in Tipperah District, Bengal, which rises in and flows through the northern part of the District, till it debouches into the Meghná at Char Lálpur, after a course of 92 miles. Navigable throughout the year for a considerable portion of its course by trading boats of 100 *maunds* or about 4 tons burthen. The principal town on the Titás is Bráhmanbária, situated on its north bank.

To.—A tidal creek or mouth of the Irawadi, known in the charts as the China Bakir. It leaves the Kyún-tún or Dala river at the village of Kywon-khareng, and after running in a south-easterly direction for about 70 miles, falls into the Gulf of Martaban, between the Rangoon and Than-htiep rivers. It varies in width from 500 yards to 1 mile, and in depth from 2½ to 9 fathoms at low water. The banks are for the most part low and muddy, and a great portion of the adjacent country is inundated during the rains. For about 16 miles from its mouth, the water is salt during floods. In the dry weather, at spring-tides, a bore is formed which flows up the Tha-khwot-peng or Bassein creek. From the mouth of the latter northwards, the To is navigable throughout, but below this it is rendered impracticable by a bar. From the Tha-khwot-peng upwards, the To forms the dry-season route for steamers and large boats from Rangoon to the Irawadi.

Tochi.—River in Bannu District, Punjab.—*See* GAMBILA.

Todanád.—Village in the Nílgirís District, Madras. Pop. (1871), 7537. The principal *nád* or village occupied by the interesting hill tribe of Todas, who have attracted so much attention from English visitors. See especially J. W. Breeks' *Primitive Tribes of the Nilgiris*, and Bishop Caldwell's *Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian Languages.* According to the Census of 1871, the Todas number in all only 693 souls, of whom 517 are found in the village of Todanád.

Toda Todí.—One of the petty States of Gohelwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 2 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £350, of which £14 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £3 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Tohána.—Town in Hissár District, Punjab; situated 40 miles north of Hissár town. Pop. (1868), 3533 persons, mostly Patháns. Once a city of some size and importance, founded, according to tradition, in the 6th century A.D., by Anang Pál, Tuár Rájá of Delhi. Ruined during the Chauhán supremacy, it recovered its prosperity in the early Musalmán

period; but having suffered many vicissitudes of plunder and famine, it has now sunk into an inferior position. Numerous remains in the neighbourhood testify to its former importance. No trade. Head-quarters of a police circle.

Tolly's Nálá.—Canal in Bengal, extending from Kidderpur (lat. 22° 33′ N., long. 88° 22′ E.), about a mile south of Calcutta, to Tárdaha (lat. 22° 27′ 15″ N., long. 88° 33′ E.). It is 18 miles in length, and connects the Húglí with the Bidyádharí. This was originally a private venture, under a grant of land for a certain period, which was made to Major Tolly in 1782, and subsequent years. As at first excavated, the canal was of very insignificant dimensions; but with the increase of its importance, the channel was several times widened, until it has now become a much frequented passage (forming part of the Inner Sundarbans route), and is a source of considerable revenue to Government. The original course of the Húglí was identical with the present Tolly's Nálá as far as Gariá, 8 miles south of Calcutta.

To-ma-yan.—Revenue circle in the Pya-pún township of Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 3007; gross revenue, £3963.

Tondiarpet.—Suburb of Madras.—*See* MADRAS CITY.

Tongha.—Town in Toung-ngú District, Pegu Division, British Burma.—*See* TOUNG-NGU TOWN.

Tonk.—Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Rájputána Agency. It comprises the 6 Divisions of Tonk, Rámpura, Nimbhera, Pirawa, Chapra, and Sironji, separated from each other by distances varying from 100 to 250 miles, and covering a total area of 1800 square miles. The town of Tonk is situated in lat. 26° 10′ 42″ N., and long. 75° 50′ 6″ E. The population of the State was estimated in 1875 at about 320,000 persons, and the revenue at about £110,000. The ruling family are Patháns of the Boner tribe.

In the reign of the Emperor Muhammad Sháh Gházi, one Teleh Khán left his home in the Boner country, and took service in Rohilkhand with Alí Muhammad Khán, a Rohillá of distinction. His son, Haidar Khán, became possessed of some landed property in Moradábád; and to him in 1766 was born Amír Khán, the founder of Tonk. Beginning life as a petty mercenary leader, Amír Khán rose in 1798 to be the commander of a large independent army in the employ of Jaswant Ráo Holkar, and was employed in the campaigns against Sindhia, the Peshwá, and the British, and in assisting to levy the contributions exacted from Rájputána and Málwá. In 1806, Holkar granted to him the State of Tonk, and he had previously received the District of Sironji. In that year, Amír Khán transferred himself and his army to the Rájá of Jáipur, then at war with the Rájá of Jodhpur; and after crushing the latter, changed sides and reduced the former.

Having indiscriminately plundered both countries, he, in 1809, proceeded at the head of 40,000 horsemen (being joined *en route* by 25,000 Pindárís) against the Rájá of Nágpur. He was, however, warned off by the British Government, and returning to Rájputána, his bands plundered the country. Eventually, in 1817, the Marquis of Hastings, with the view of putting down the Pindárís and restoring peace to Rájputána and Central India, offered Amír Khán the sovereignty of all the tracts bestowed on him by Holkar, on condition of his disbanding his army, which consisted of 52 battalions of disciplined infantry, 150 guns, and a numerous body of Pathán cavalry. Finding resistance would be useless, Amír Khán acquiesced. His artillery, with the exception of 40 guns, was purchased, and some of his troops enlisted in the British service. The remainder were liberally dealt with prior to disbandment, and the fort and District of Rámpura were presented to the Nawáb by the British Government as a free gift. Amír Khán died in 1834, and was succeeded by his son Wazír Muhammad Khán, who died in 1864. He was succeeded by his son Muhammad Alí Khán. In consequence of abetting a treacherous attack on the relatives and followers of one of the chief feudatories of the State, the Thakúr of Láwa, Muhammad Alí Khán was deposed by the British Government in 1867, and his son Muhammad Ibráhim Khán, the present Nawáb of Tonk, was placed on the *masnad*. The Nawáb holds a *sanad* guaranteeing the succession of his family according to the Muhammadan law, in event of the failure of natural heirs; and he receives a salute of 17 guns. The State pays no tribute to the British Government. The military force consists of 8 field and 45 other guns, 100 artillerymen, 1130 cavalry, and 1730 infantry, with a small body of police.

Tonnúr (or *Tondanúr*).—Village in Mysore District, Mysore; situated in lat. 12° 33′ N., and long. 76° 42′ E., 10 miles south-west of Seringapatam. Pop. (1871), 566. Historically interesting as having been the last refuge of the Ballála kings after their expulsion from Dorasamudra by the Muhammadans in 1310. Here also is the splendid tank called MOTI TALAB, and a Musalmán temple bearing date 760 Hijra, or 1358 A.D.

Tons.—River in Garhwál State and Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces. Rises at the northern side of Jamnotri, close to the source of the Jumna (Jamuná), and first issues from a snow-bed 12,784 feet above sea level. Takes a westerly course for 30 miles in a series of cascades, and receives the waters of the Rupin. Nineteen miles lower down, it is joined by the Pábar; and thenceforward forms the boundary between that part of Dehra Dún District known as JAUNSAR BAWAR, and the Native States of JUBBAL and SIRMUR in the Punjab. Its course in this portion runs almost due south, through a succession of rugged limestone ravines, till it joins the Jumna at an

elevation of 1686 feet above sea level. Total length, about 100 miles; fall per mile, 110 feet. The volume of the Tons at the confluence is greater than that of the Jumna, so that it may be properly regarded as the principal head-water of the united stream.

Tons, South-Western.—River in the North-Western Provinces. Rises in the Native State of Maihar, at a considerable elevation, and flows through a ravine of the Katra range, with a cascade over 200 feet in height. Thence it flows in a north-easterly direction, and 50 miles below the fall, passes through the Tárá Hills into the plains. Twenty miles farther down, it joins the Ganges on its right bank, in Allahábád District, after a total length of 165 miles. The road from Jabalpur to Allahábád runs along its left bank for a distance of 26 miles from its source, and then crosses the stream at the town of Maihar, by an indifferent ferry. The road from Allahábád to Mírzápur also crosses the Tons, about a mile above its mouth. A bridge of 7 spans carries the East Indian Railway across the river, with a length of 1206 feet and a height of 75 feet. Navigation is confined to the lower reaches in the summer months. Floods rise as high as 25 feet in a few hours; highest recorded rise, 65 feet.

Tori Fatehpur.—A petty Native State in Bundelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Bundelkhand and Central India Agency. It is one of those States known as the *Hashtbháya* (8 brothers) *Jágírs*, which arose from a division made by Rái Sinh, a descendant of the Rájás of Orchha, of his State of Barágáon among his eight sons. The State of Tori Fatehpur is almost entirely surrounded by the British District of Jhánsi. Its area is about 36 square miles; the population was estimated in 1875 at about 10,000 persons, and the revenue at about £3200. The chief, Ráo Prithwí Sinh, is a Bundelá Rájput, born about 1848, and adopted by the late chief, Har Prasad, who died in 1858.

Torsha.—River of Bengal.—*See* DHARLA.

Toshám.—Town in Hissár District, Punjab; situated in lat. 28° 54′ N., and long. 75° 56′ E., 23 miles south-west of Hissár town, in the heart of the sandy hills of Chak Bágar. Pop. (1868), 2128. A bare rocky elevation, the highest in the District, rises abruptly above the town and desert plain to a height of 800 feet. A tank cut in the rock, half-way up the hill, forms the scene of a yearly fair, and is frequented by pilgrims, some of them from considerable distances. Ancient inscriptions, scored on the surrounding rocks, have hitherto baffled all attempts at decipherment. Only important at the present day as the headquarters of a police station.

Toung-bhek-myo.—The southern township in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma; occupying the whole tract between the Arakan Yomas and the Bay of Bengal, from the Tsa-wa river south-

wards to the Khwa. It has an area of 1290 square miles, and is divided into 6 revenue circles. Pop. (1877-78), 9919. The country is very mountainous, and drained by many small streams, with a general easterly or westerly course. The Khwa, the principal river, forms a good harbour, but the entrance is impracticable for large vessels, owing to a bar. The chief products of the township are rice, tobacco, sesamum, sugar-cane, *dhaní*, plantains, cotton, pepper, madder, mulberry, cocoa-nuts, and vegetables. The exports are sesamum seed and oil, silk, madder, cotton, sugar, torches, *nga-pi* or fish-paste, dried and salt fish, turtle eggs, and cattle. The imports comprise cotton, woollen and silk piece-goods and twist, and lacquered ware. Communication is carried on inland by means of the beds of mountain streams, which are very dangerous during the monsoons. The gross revenue of the township amounted in 1874-75 to £2677; in 1877-78, after the transfer of two circles to Sandoway Myoma township of Sandoway District, it was £2130.

Toung-bho-hla.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1878), 5569; gross revenue, £1801.

Toung-gnú.—District, township, and town in British Burma.—*See* TOUNG-NGU.

Toung-gnyo.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Consists of undulating country, gradually rising towards the Yoma range. Pop. (1878), 3287; gross revenue, £427.

Toung-gún-zí-gún.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Covered for the most part with grass and tree forest, in which teak and *sha* are found. Pop. (1878), 7469; gross revenue, £1276.

Toung-gúp.—Revenue circle in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Chief products, rice and tobacco. Pop. (1878), 4432; land revenue, £570, and capitation tax, £376.

Toung-gúp.—Village in the above circle of Sandoway District, British Burma, and headquarters of the Toung-gúp or northern township; situated in lat. 18° 49′ 50″ N., and long. 94° 19′ 50″ E., about 6 miles from the mouth of the Toung-gúp river. Contains a court-house, police station, and telegraph office. Pop. (1877), 2219. An important road across the Toma mountains, from Toung-gúp into Pegu, was made shortly after annexation.

Toung-gúp.—River in Sandoway District, British Burma; rising in the western slopes of the Arakan Hills, and passing the village of Toung-gúp, falls into the sea a little south of Rámri. Two large low islands divide its mouth into three channels.

Toung-khyoung.—Revenue circle in the U-rí-toung (Oo-ree-toung) township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1878), 2433; gross revenue, £1259.

Toung-loung-tsú.—Village in the Henzada township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1878), 3081.

Toung-lún.—Revenue circle in the Tsambay-rún township, now united to Kyoung-gún, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 28 square miles. Extensively cultivated with rice, except in the south-eastern portion, where the ground is broken and covered with tree forest. Pop. (1878), 8210; gross revenue, £2293. Headquarters at Kyún-pyan, a village with 2835 inhabitants.

Toung-ngú.—A District of the Tenasserim Division, British Burma, lying between 17° 37′ and 19° 28′ N. lat., and between 95° 53′ and 96° 53′ E. long. Area, 6354 square miles; population in 1872, 86,166 souls. Bounded on the north by Independent Burma, from which it is separated by a line of masonry pillars, marking the frontier fixed by Lord Dalhousie in 1853; on the east by a mountain range known as the 'Great Watershed;' on the south by Shwe-gyeng District; and on the west by the Pegu Yomas. Headquarters at TOUNG-NGU TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The District is crossed by three mountain ranges, —the Pegu Yomas, and the Poung-loung and Nat-toung or 'Great Watershed' chains,—all with a general north and south direction, and covered for the most part with dense forest. The average elevation of the YOMAS is here between 800 and 1200 feet. The hills between the 'Great Watershed' and the Tsit-toung or Sitoung river on the east average between 2000 and 3000 feet in height, and are clothed in parts with pines; still farther east are the Nat-toung Mountains, with one peak 8000 feet above sea level. These ranges send out numerous spurs. They are of granite, and exhibit on the east an almost perfectly crystalline structure. The rest of Toung-ngú forms the upper portion of the valley of the TSIT-TOUNG river, which on the east has an average breadth of 5, and on the west of 20 miles. Near the frontier this tract is very rugged, and cultivation can only be effected in patches on the slopes of the hills. The soil is a tenacious sandy alluvium, and towards the north large masses of fossil wood occur. In the vicinity of Toung-ngú town are plains, which increase in breadth south of the town. The Tsit-toung (Sitoung) is the only large river in the District. Its chief tributaries are the Tshwa, Kha-boung, Hpyú, Thouk-re-gat, and Rouk-thwa-wa, all navigable for some distance of their course. The geology of the District is described in Mr. Theobald's *Records of the Geological Survey of India*, vol. x. part 2, pp. 73 *et seq.* Limestone appears in places east of the Tsit-toung river, and north-east of Toung-ngú town a light grey marble is quarried. The principal timber trees are *eng* (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus), *pyeng-ma* (Lagerstrœmia reginæ), *pyeng-gado* (Xylia dolabriformis), *ka-gnyeng* (Dipterocarpus alata), *theng-gan* (Hopea odorata), *pa-douk* (Pterocarpus indicus), teak (Tectona grandis), *sha* (Acacia catechu), and varieties of Dalbergia, Acacia, etc.

History.—According to the palm-leaf histories, A-thaw-ka (Asoka), in 321 B.C., sent for the chiefs of Toung-ngú, and giving them various relics of Gautama, directed them to transport them to Toung-ngú and to erect pagodas over them. From this time till the close of the 12th century A.D., the history of Toung-ngú is blank. In 1191, Na-ra-pa-dí-tsi-thú, King of Pagan, whose name appears in Tavoyan, Talaing, Burman, and Toung-ngú histories, and who is everywhere described as a religious monarch who did much to establish Buddhism in Burma and the adjacent countries, came down the Irawadi, and sailing out to sea, entered the Tsit-toung, and ascended as far as Toung-ngú in search, it is said, of the pagodas built some 1500 years before by A-thaw-ka. The pagodas were found, and were cleaned and repaired. Na-ra-pa-dí-tsí-thú appointed a governor, which seems to show that at this period Toung-ngú was subject to Pagan. A successor of this governor removed the seat of government to a spot on the banks of the Tshwa, about 20 miles north of the present town of Toung-ngú.

The country increased in prosperity until 1256 A.D., when Wa-rie-yú, the King of Martaban, marched northwards and invaded Toung-ngú, and, having taken Tha-won-lek-ya prisoner, sent him to Byú, a village about 14 miles south of Shwe-gyeng. His sons, in 1279, built a town on a hill, which they called Toung-ngú, from *toung*, a hill, and *ngú*, a projecting spur. At about the same time that these two princes founded Toung-ngú, a man called Kareng-ba established a settlement on the eastern bank of the Tsit-toung, which was called Kareng-myo or Kareng city. The brothers having heard of this, and finding that the site which they had selected was too small, entered into communication with Kareng-ba, and the three agreed to found a new town, which they did in 1299 A.D., and called it Dha-gnya-wa-dí. Tha-won-gyí was declared king, Tha-won-ngay heir-apparent, and Kareng-ba prime minister. The Pagan kingdom had begun to decline in 1250 A.D., and the reigning sovereign had been unable to come to Tha-won-lek-ya's aid when he was attacked by Wa-rie-yú, and for many years the whole country was torn by internal dissensions. Toung-ngú thus remained without interference from the north or from the south, and Tha-won-gyí was enabled to consolidate his kingdom. He was murdered in 1317 A.D., after a reign of eighteen years, by his brother Tha-won-ngay, who ascended the throne; he died in 1324, after a reign of seven years.

Kareng-ba usurped the kingdom, and died in 1342 A.D., after a reign of eighteen years, and was succeeded by his son-in-law Lek-ya-ze-ya-theng-gyaw, whose younger brother Htouk-lek-ya wrested the government from him in 1344 A.D., and was in his turn deposed two years later by one Theng-pan-ka. He died in 1363 A.D., and was succeeded by his son Pyaw-khyí-gyí, who at the time of his father's death was

staying with the King of Pegu. Pyaw-khyi-gyí entered into an alliance with the Talaing king, then at enmity with the rulers of Ava and Prome, the latter of whom, like so many other petty princes, had declared himself independent; and having thus incurred their displeasure, he was invited to Prome and there treacherously murdered. His son Pyaw-khyí-ngay and his nephew Tsaw-ka-det, who had accompanied him, escaped, and for three months were engaged in wresting the throne of Toung-ngú from the regent, who, on hearing of the king's death, had seized it. Pyaw-ghyí-ngay was proclaimed king in 1370 A.D., and in 1374 was succeeded by Tsaw-ka-det, who, hated by his people, was murdered in 1378 by a Hpún-gyí, or priest, who seized the sceptre. Whilst on his way to visit the King of Ava, his Shan subjects rebelled and seized Toung-ngú; he returned at once, and succeeded in recapturing the royal city, when he put all the Shans to death. He was succeeded in 1392 A.D. by his son Tsaw-ú, who after a year was deposed by the King of Ava, and one Ta-ra-pya appointed in his stead. A successor declared war against Ava, and conquered several of the States tributary to that kingdom. Some years later, he made an alliance with the King of Pegu, the great Ra-za-dhie-rit, to whom he gave his daughter in marriage; and in 1417, the two sovereigns attacked Prome. The army of the King of Toung-ngú, consisting of 20,000 infantry, 1000 cavalry, and 200 elephants, under the command of Thamaing Pa-yún, crossed the Yomas, whilst that of the King of Pegu, composed of 5000 men in 700 boats, commanded by Ba-gnya Pa-thien, ascended the Irawadi. Prome was taken, and with it much booty, including the royal white elephant.

From this time until the beginning of the 16th century, the interference in the affairs of the kingdom, both by the King of Ava and by the King of Pegu, was continual; and the kings of Toung-ngú were little else than governors appointed sometimes by one power, sometimes by the other. About 1485, the capital was transferred to the site of the present city of Toung-ngú, and the independence of the Toung-ngú kingdom was secured by the capture of Ava in 1526 A.D. In 1538, a descendant of the founder of the modern Toung-ngú overran the whole kingdom of Pegu, and was proclaimed king of that country. This prince built the golden palace in Toung-ngú, the ruins of which are still to be seen, and erected the SHWE TSHAN-DAW PAGODA. He died in 1606 A.D., and was succeeded by his son, Nat-sheng-noung-thí-rí-maha-dhamma-raza, the last independent King of Toung-ngú. Pegu had been utterly despoiled, and as the power of that kingdom sank, that of their hereditary rivals and fierce foes, the Burmese, rose. Philip de Brito y Nicote had seized the country in the name of the King of Portugal, and entered into an alliance with Maha-thí-ha-thú-ra-dhamma-raza, but he quarrelled with Nat-sheng-noung-thí-rí-maha-dhamma-raza, and captured Toung-ngú. Pegu was eventually conquered by

the King of Burma in 1612, and Toung-ngú never regained its independence.

Population.—In 1855-56, the population of Toung-ngú District was returned at 34,957, of whom 17,255 were males and 17,702 females. By 1872, the numbers had risen to 86,166, of whom 51,213 were Burmese, 15,857 Karengs, 7986 Shans, 300 Toung-thús, 449 Talaings, 2252 Arakanese, 3243 Yabaings, and 92 Khyengs. In 1878, it was returned at 89,228, viz. 45,670 males and 43,558 females; persons per square mile, 14·04. The Yabaings and Shans are more numerous in Toung-ngú than in any other part of the Province. The Yabaings are found almost entirely on the slopes of the Pegu Yomas, and their main employment is the cultivation of the mulberry-tree, and the rearing of silk-worms. They speak Burmese, and their nominal religion is Buddhism. Nothing is known of their history or traditions. The only town in the District is TOUNG-NGU, the civil and military head-quarters; pop. (1877), 13,087, exclusive of garrison. In 1872, out of a total of 650 villages, 589 had less than 200 inhabitants, and only 13 more than 1000.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of 6354 square miles, only 59 are actually under cultivation, owing mainly to the hilly nature of the country. Of rice, some thirty varieties are grown. In the plains, the seed is either sown broadcast in inundated fields, or is reared in nurseries and transplanted in June. Tobacco and cotton thrive well. Sesamum is grown in the *toungyas* or hill gardens. Area under the principal crops in 1877-78:—Rice, 32,537 acres; oil-seeds, 220; sugar-cane, 199; cotton, 24; fruit-trees, 834; vegetables, 1080 acres. Prices have risen, and the wealth of the people has increased considerably during the last thirty or forty years. Rice has risen by about 25 per cent. Fish, the principal article of food after rice, cost (1878) 1s. per *ser* of 40 lbs. The rivers form the chief means of communication during the rainy season. The 'Royal road' from Pegu to Toung-ngú is now a mere cart-track. Roads from Rangoon to Toung-ngú, and from Toung-ngú to Thayet-myo, are in course of construction.

Commerce, etc.—The exports of Toung-ngú District comprise betel-nuts, *nga-pí* or fish-paste, tobacco, silk, cotton and woollen piece-goods, raw silk, and salt. The main imports are timber, lacquered ware, pickled tea, sesamum, silk and cotton piece-goods, jaggery and molasses, cutch, garlic, cattle, and ponies. The bulk of the export trade finds an exit by the Tsit-toung river. An increasing traffic is carried on overland with the Shan States. The value of this trade in 1872-73 was £179,742; in 1877-78, £317,265. The principal manufactures are silk, saltpetre, and gunpowder. The Yabaings and Karengs rear silk-worms, and supply the market with raw silk.

Administration.—Shortly before the annexation of Pegu, the revenue

from Toung-ngú District amounted to £3006. In 1855-56, the total revenue was £9405. In 1863, customs were abolished, and this at first affected the returns, but in 1873 the total income of Toung-ngú was £18,836. In 1877-78, it rose to £25,646. The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner and Assistants. Police force (1878), 428 officers and men. Jail at Toung-ngú town; hospital and dispensary, which relieved 6959 patients in 1877. Education is mainly in the hands of the Buddhist monks. Several schools in Toung-ngú town. One municipality in the District, viz. Toung-ngú, with a municipal revenue in 1873-74 of £1566.

Toung-ngú.—Township in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. The whole of the western portion is intersected by spurs of the Yoma range. Pop. (1877-78), 16,982; gross revenue, £2447.

Toung-ngú.—The chief town of the District of the same name; on the right bank of the Tsit-toung (Sitoung) river, 170 miles from Rangoon by land, and 295 miles by water, and about 37 miles in a direct line from the northern frontier. Lat. 18° 55′ 30″ N., long. 96° 31′ 10″ E. The town is regularly laid out, and contains a good *bázár*, court-houses, jail, hospital and dispensary, Roman Catholic chapel, Anglican church, Baptist and Kareng normal schools, and several police stations. The cantonment is ordinarily occupied by a wing of a European regiment, a regiment of Madras Native infantry, and a battery of artillery. On the west, inside the old wall, is a sheet of water about 1½ mile in length and a half mile in breadth; and surrounding the town is the old fosse, 170 feet broad, which during the rainy season always contains water. The site of the town is slightly higher than the surrounding country, which is open and cultivated in parts. During the rainy season, when the water is retained in the rice-fields, it becomes an extensive marsh. Large suburbs, chiefly to the east and south, are included within the municipal limits. The first town founded on the present site was Dwa-ya-wo-dí, now known as Myo-gyí, a suburb of the existing town, which was built towards the end of the 15th century by a usurper named Meng-gyí-gnyo, who subsequently, in 1510 A.D., founded Toung-ngú, or, as it was then called, Ke-tú-ma-tí. Inside the walls he built a palace, the ruins of which are still in existence, and converted loathsome swamps into four ornamental lakes. During the second Burmese war, the town surrendered to the British, who took possession without firing a shot. In 1873, the population, exclusive of the garrison and camp followers, numbered 10,195; and in 1872 the gross municipal revenue was £719. In 1877-78, the population was 12,414, and the revenue £5947. A fairly good road extends from the town northwards towards the frontier, and another southwards to Htan-ta-beng village on the bank of the Tsit-toung.

Toung-rwa.—Revenue circle in Manoung or Cheduba Island, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 31 square miles; pop. (1878), 3496. In the north there is a hill supposed by some to be volcanic, but the eruptions, according to Mr. Theobald of the Geological Survey, are due to the presence of marsh gas. Petroleum is found in the southern portion of the circle. Chief crops, rice and tobacco. Land revenue, £332, and capitation tax, £357.

Tranquebar (*Tarangambádi*).—Seaport town in Tanjore District, Madras; situated in lat. 11° 1′ 37″ N., and long. 79° 53′ 44″ E.; pop. (1871), 15,040, residing in 3188 houses. In 1612, a Danish East India Company was formed at Copenhagen, and in 1616, the first Danish ship arrived in India. The captain, Rodant Crape, to effect a landing, is said to have wrecked his ship off Tranquebar, at the expense, however, of his crew, who were all murdered. He then contrived to make his way to the Rájá of Tanjore, and obtained for the Company Tranquebar, with land around 5 miles long and 3 miles broad. A fort was built; and in 1624, Tranquebar became the property of the King of Denmark, to whom the Company owed money. For supplying arms to the Nawáb of Arcot, Haidar Alí, in 1780, exacted a fine of £14,000 from the Danes. Tranquebar was taken by the English in 1807, with other Danish settlements in India, but restored in 1814. It was bought by the English from Denmark in 1845, at the same time as SERAMPUR, for a sum of £20,000.

In Danish times, Tranquebar was a busy port, and contained a number of Danish families, many of which left the place when it became an English possession. Under English rule, the revenue increased rapidly; and as the port affords better anchorage than Negapatam (Nágapattanam), it soon drew away the trade of the latter place. However, the construction of the South Indian Railway, which was completed from Negapatam to Tanjore in 1861, and to Trichinopoli in 1862, restored the trade to Negapatam; and Tranquebar is now half ruined. The import trade has disappeared, and the yearly value of exports does not exceed £40,000. From 1845 to 1860, Tranquebar was the headquarters of the District Collector, now transferred to Tanjore; and from 1860 to 1874, it contained the District and Sessions Court, afterwards removed to Negapatam. In 1878, the North Tanjore District Court, which had been in abeyance for two years, was re-established at Tranquebar, which is also the station of a District *munsif* and sub-magistrate (deputy *tahsildár*). The reduction of the number of officials has diminished the importance of the place. Tranquebar is interesting as the first settlement of Protestant missionaries in India; and as a mission station, it retains its importance. The mission was founded by Ziegenbalg and Plutschau (Lutherans) in 1706, and during the 18th century it gradually spread its influence over

great part of the Tamil country. The best known of Ziegenbalg's successors was Schwartz (*ob.* 1798). In 1847, the mission passed from the Danes to the Leipzic Evangelical Lutheran Mission. Their printing press at Tranquebar turns out very good work. The place is healthy.

The fort, a curious old place, is on the shore, separated from the cultivated land by a broad sandy tract. It is a square, of which the shore forms one side, on which the sea is gradually encroaching, and has already swept away the first church built by Ziegenbalg. All the European houses are within the small inclosure of the fort, adjoining each other, and the absence of 'compounds' gives the place an appearance unusual in an Indian station. The bulk of the native population live outside the fort. The walls are well preserved, and the former citadel (the Danneborg) is now used as a jail, which in 1878 had an average daily number of 153 prisoners. The fort also contains two Protestant churches, and a quaint little Roman Catholic church, under the jurisdiction of the Archbishop of Goa. The principal Catholic church is outside the fort, and belongs to the vicariate-apostolic of Pondicherry. Protestants number about 2000, and Catholics about 1200, in and near Tranquebar. Six per cent. of the inhabitants are 'Lubbies' (Tamil Musalmáns).

Travancore (*Tiruvánkodu* or *Tiruvidánkodu*, the southern portion of the ancient division of Kérala).—Native State in the Madras Presidency; situated between 8° 4′ and 10° 22′ N. lat., and between 76° 12′ and 77° 38′ E. long. It is bounded on the north by the Native State of Cochin; on the east by the British Districts of Madura and Tinnevelli; on the south and west by the Indian Ocean. The extreme length of Travancore from north to south is 174 miles, its extreme breadth 75 miles; area, 6730 square miles; pop. (1875), 2,311,379 souls. The State is in subsidiary alliance with the British Government, to which it pays a tribute of £80,000 a year. It is divided for administrative purposes into 32 *táluks*. TRIVANDRUM is the chief town and the residence of the Mahárájá.

Physical Aspects.—The following description is condensed from an account supplied by the Hon. A. Seshia Sastri, C.S.I., Díwán of Travancore:—Travancore is one of the most picturesque portions of southern India. The mountains which separate it on the east from the British Districts on the Coromandel coast, and which at some points rise to an elevation of 8000 feet above the sea, are clothed with magnificent primeval forest; while the belt of flat country, to an average distance of about 10 miles inland from the sea, is covered with an almost unbroken mass of cocoa-nut and areca palms, which, in a great measure, constitute the wealth of the country. The whole surface is undulating, and presents a series of hills and valleys,

traversed from east to west by many rivers, the floods of which, arrested by the peculiar action of the Arabian Sea on the coast, spread themselves out into numerous lakes or lagoons, connected here and there by artificial canals, and forming an inland line of smooth water communication which extends nearly the whole length of the coast, and is of the utmost value when the sea itself is closed for navigation during the monsoon. Nanjinád, with its clustered villages, palmyra groves, and extensive swamps of waving rice, resembles in some respects the neighbouring District of Tinnevelli, except that, unlike Tinnevelli, it is nowhere sterile. Northward, this fertile plain is succeeded by the wooded and rugged surface of the typical Malayálam country. The rich and variegated tract along the coast is finely contrasted with the mountainous wilds farther inland. The hill scenery has peculiar beauties, among which are the wild, rocky, and precipitous acclivities and fantastic forms of the mountains in the southern parts. Farther north, the mountain chain becomes less bold, a few rugged cliffs and conical summits alone breaking the sameness of its outline. The high range breaks into clusters of hills, and the valleys are studded with temples and churches. Indeed, the numerous houses and gardens, scattered thickly over the country, give it an appearance entirely different from that of the eastern coast. Mannárgudi, Kolachel, Vilinjum, Pantarai, Vayli, Anjengo, Quilon, Káyankulam, Porakád, and Alleppi are seaport towns, of which the last-mentioned and Kolachel are by far the most important, the remainder being frequented only by small native craft.

The hill region is so extensive, and so marked a feature of the State, that it merits special notice. The mountains are of every variety of elevation, climate, and vegetation. Some tracts are even now considered inaccessible, and very little has been accurately surveyed. Certain portions have been made over to European and native capitalists, by whom the natural fertility of the soil is being turned to the best account; and every year, the area cultivated and the export of coffee increase. Some of the loftier mountains are entirely detached, except near their bases, from the neighbouring heights; they often have a precipitous descent towards the west, and are connected on that side with a succession of low hills, which diminish in altitude as they approach the coast. From Quilon southward, these secondary ranges soften down into undulating slopes, intersected by glens and valleys, which grow wider as the elevation of the hills decreases, and are cultivated invariably with rice, and are very productive. Among the mountains a few rough elevated tablelands are found; but the alternation of hill and valley is in most cases too rapid to allow of any large extent of level surface. The above remarks refer to the country west of the Periyár river, between which and Dindigul rises a confused mass of hills. These have, however, similar characteristics;

their summits, either broken into projecting cliffs, or thickly covered with trees, fall generally with precipitous abruptness, and present a variety of wild and magnificent forest scenery. These solitudes inclose some elevated plains (about one-twelfth of the whole area), which afford pasturage for cattle, and enjoy a good climate for a portion of the year. To the north, the mountains rise to an elevation of 8000 feet, with plateaux over 7000 feet. The more important of these is part of the group known as the ANAIMALAIS. The southernmost peak of note is the sacred Agasteshwara Malai, the source of the Támbraparni river. The plateaux, by reason of their good climate, rich soil, abundant timber and water supply, are likely to become better known as the demand for coffee land increases. One plateau alone (Erevimalai or Hamilton's valley) is 6 miles long by 3 wide, and contains about 10,000 acres of excellent tea and coffee land. Similar smaller valleys are found in this group (called Mel Malai, or the Kannandevan Hills, by Ward). At the head of the Travancore Hills stands Anaimudi (8837 feet), the highest peak south of the Himálayas, and near it are several other peaks of 8000 feet. South of this group is the lower region of the Cardamom Hills, so called from their special product. South of these, again, are large tracts of unsurveyed forest, which, with the exception of the Ashembu coffee plantations, and one or two narrow strips near the main passes, continue to the Achinkoil river. Even south of this, although the hills become lower and narrower, the country is thinly inhabited almost to Cape Comorin.

Numerous rivers run down from the Gháts, which flow by tortuous courses, with high banks and rocky beds, into the backwater; most of these are navigable only near the sea. The chief river of Travancore is the Periyár, rising in the high ranges, which after a course of 140 miles enters the backwater at Kodangalúr; 60 miles of this river are navigable. The Pámbai, and its tributary the Achinkoil, and the Kallada, are the next in importance. The Western Támbraparni, rising in the same lake, a sister river of the larger Támbraparni, which flows east into Tinnevelli, flows westward, like all other Travancore rivers. Numerous small streams cross the narrow plain between the mountains and the sea. But no large irrigation works exist on them, the bounteous rainfall making these unnecessary, except in the extreme south. Here on the Paralai and Kodai there are anicuts constructed by Pándyan kings.

A succession of lagoons or backwaters, connected by navigable canals, extends along the coast, forming a most important means of communication. Its extreme length is nearly 200 miles, namely, from Chaughát to Trivandrum; but between the latter place and Quilon, there rises a high promontory of land about 6 miles in breadth, which is now (1878) being cut through to make the line of water communi-

cation complete. The total area of these lakes is $227\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, of which $157\frac{1}{2}$ are in Travancore, $53\frac{1}{2}$ in Cochin, and $16\frac{1}{2}$ in British territory. The largest lake is Vembanád (east of Alleppi), but except during the monsoon, it is very shallow. A strip of land from 7 miles to about half a mile wide separates these backwaters from the sea. There are, however, several outlets; those at Chetwai, Kodangalúr, Cochin, Káyankulam, Iveka, and Paravúr, are the principal ones by which the rivers enter the sea. Every kind of merchandise, and the whole produce of the country, are carried on these waters, and in consequence few good carriage roads exist. The boats are of various sizes, and in most instances are formed of a single tree, the trunk of which is hollowed out. The ordinary size is about 20 feet by $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet; the boats for carrying rice to a distance are larger, and have a deck or roof. Teak, *angely*, and cotton trees are generally selected for boat-building, being durable and sufficiently large.

The lower hills contain much teak, *pun* (Sterculia fœtida), jack (Artocarpus hirsutus), black-wood (Dalbergia latifolia), ebony, palmyra (Borassus), and other valuable trees. Gamboge, gall-nuts, honey, wax, ivory, cardamoms, and pepper are among the numerous forest products. The finest teak is found in the Cardamom Hills, but except near the Periyár and other large streams, it cannot be brought down from the higher ranges to the coast. Pasture is plentiful on the lower slopes; and some of the hillmen herd cattle. Their cultivation is confined to a little destructive *kumári* or *jum*. Of the higher ranges, Mr. J. Munro says: 'The best wooded blocks of land are found near Devikulam, Annakadnai, and near Munár up to Párvatíyammalai; the slope of Anaimudi at the source of the Pámbai is also well wooded, but here the axe of the Muduvan has done much damage. The destruction of these forests has been partially stopped within the last few years; but in a large and rarely visited tract, it is not easy to entirely prohibit the old custom of clearing forests for the sake of a single crop. Much of the Nílgiri vegetation is found on these hills, and the rhododendron grows everywhere at an elevation of over 5000 feet. The trees, though principally of soft growth, are of large scantling, considering the high elevation. At such lower elevations as 5000 feet, the harder woods, such as white cedar, are found, but they are not abundant. Some of the *kumeras*, which have only had one crop taken off, seem recovering their original character of forest; but this is seldom the case. The Brazil cherry is found especially on the sites of old clearings; but I have not seen the Alpine strawberry, so common on the Nílgiris.'

There are no important mines. Iron is abundant. Alum, sulphur, lignite, and plumbago exist, but are not worked.

The mountains and vast forests of Travancore afford some of the best sport to be got anywhere in India, especially for those who care only

for 'large game.' Elephants, whose ivory is a source of State revenue, are very numerous. Tigers, leopards (including the black variety), bears, bison, *sámbhar* or 'elk,' *nílgái*, and various kinds of deer abound.

History.—No authentic history of Travancore in early times is extant; but tradition states that the whole Malayálam coast was reclaimed from the sea by Parasuráma, and colonized by certain Bráhmans, known as Nambúris, whose rule, after lasting for a considerable time, terminated in 68 B.C. The Bráhmans then elected Kshattriya chiefs to rule for periods of twelve years. This system of electing a new ruler every twelve years lasted for four centuries. The last and greatest of these rulers, Cheraman Perumál (Viceroy of the Chera kings), at his death divided his dominions among his vassals, the eldest of whom received the southern portion, of which Tiruvánkodu (now a small village) was the capital. Upwards of three centuries are occupied by the reigns of the first twenty-three chiefs of this principality, who were continually at war with neighbouring chieftains. The 24th Prince was Eruma Varmá Perumál (1684-1717 A.D.). His reign, and the reigns of his two immediate successors, were characterised by internal strife and oppression. Vanchí Mártánda Perumál, who reigned from 1729 till 1746, conquered Ellayeddatúnad in 1742, and Káyankulam in 1745. Next came Vanchí Bála Perumál, who further extended his dominions; he had a considerable army, disciplined after the European model, and commanded by Portuguese, Dutch, and Italian officers.

During the war with Tipú of Mysore, from 1786 to 1792, Travancore was the stedfast ally of the British. Tipú's invasion of Malabar alarmed the Rájá, and led to the agreement of 1788, by which the latter secured a subsidiary force of two battalions of the Company's army, at a cost of 1755 pagodas (about £650) a month each, to be paid in cash or in pepper. This force had scarcely reached the island of Vypin, before Tipú, claiming the forts of Aykotta and Kodangalúr, which had recently been purchased by the Rájá of Travancore from the Dutch, invaded Travancore (1789), but was defeated with a loss of 2000 men. In the following year, Tipú renewed his attack, and was again repulsed. In 1795, the Company entered into a second treaty with Travancore, the principal provisions of which were the restoration to the Rájá of the three Districts ceded by Tipú in 1792 to the Company, and the payment in return of an annual subsidy equal to the expense of three battalions of sepoys with European artillery. The Rájá in turn bound himself not to enter into any engagements with European nations without the consent of the Company, nor to give them settlements in the country; also to assist the English, if necessary, with troops, the Company bearing the cost of such troops.

Rájá Bála Ráma Varmá, with whom this treaty was concluded, died

soon after, and was succeeded by his son, of same name. With the latter the treaty of 1805 was concluded, by which the Rájá, relieved from furnishing troops, was required to pay for a native regiment, in addition to a subsidy fixed in 1795 (in all, £80,000 a year), and further, to share the expense of a larger force when necessary; to pay at all times the utmost attention to the advice of the English Government; to hold no communication with any foreign State; and to admit no European foreigner into his service, or allow him to remain in his territory without the sanction of the Company. In 1809, the Rájá had allowed the subsidy to fall into arrears, and he further refused to dismiss the useless and expensive establishment called the Karnatic Brigade. The Díwán being the cause of this, the English demanded his dismissal, whereupon 30,000 Náirs rose in rebellion and surrounded the subsidiary force; they were, however, subdued, the 'Karnatic Brigade' was disbanded, and the expenses incurred by Government were paid by the Rájá. From this time Travancore has enjoyed unbroken peace.

Rájá Ráma Varmá died in 1811, and was succeeded by Lakshmí Rání, who confided the administration of the State to Colonel Munro, the British Resident. Lakshmí Rání died in 1814, and her sister Párvatí Rání was Regent till Ráma Varmá, Lakshmí Rání's eldest son, came of age. He reigned for seventeen years, and was succeeded by his younger brother, Mártánda Varmá, in 1846. His successor, Vanchí Bála Ráma Varmá, one of the sons of the only daughter of Lakshmí Rání, ruled from 1860 till his death in 1880. The present Mahárájá is his brother, Ráma Varmá (born 1837). In 1862, the Governor-General granted the Mahárájá a *sanad* authorizing the adoption of nieces to perpetuate the dynasty. According to Náir custom, the succession devolves on the eldest male member of the royal family in the female line.

Population.—By an enumeration made in 1816, the population was then shown to be 906,587; in 1836, it was 1,280,668; and in 1854, 1,262,647. A careful Census was taken in 1875, the returns of which placed the population at 2,311,379. Although these figures naturally suggest that the earlier enumerations were defective, it is believed that the population of Travancore is very rapidly increasing. The present average density is 343·4 per square mile (ranging from 1279·9 in Paravúr to 37 in Todupalai). The average number of persons in one house is 4·69; the proportion of females to males is about 101 to 100. There is a considerable and increasing annual influx of coolies from Tinnevelli and Madura to the coffee-gardens of Travancore. Hindus number 1,700,317, or 73·64 per cent.; Musalmáns, 139,905, or 6 per cent.; and Christians, 468,000, or 20·29 per cent. Of the Hindus, the Náirs number 440,932. The Musalmáns are chiefly descended

from Hindu converts of Arab missionaries, and their language is Malayálam. The native Christian population consists of 63 per cent. 'Syrians,' part Roman Catholics of the Syrian rite, and the rest Nestorians; Roman Catholics of the Latin rite, 24 per cent.; the remainder Protestants. The large Christian population is a distinctive feature of the country. The Syrian Christians date from the earliest centuries of our era; the Roman Catholics of the Latin rite are the result of the European missions of the Jesuits and Carmelites during the last 300 years. 83 per cent. of the population speak Malayálam, 17 per cent. Tamil. About 60 per cent. of the adult male population is agricultural, for the most part fairly well off. Of Shánárs and other similar castes, there are about half a million; as might be expected in a purely Hindu State like Travancore, these castes have a very low status, and labour under many social disabilities.

The chief towns of Travancore are—Trivandrum, the capital, with a population (1875) of 57,611; Alleppi, the commercial centre and chief seaport, pop. 29,918; Quilon, the military headquarters, pop. 14,366; Shenkotta, 9752; Sharetala, 9228; Kottayam, 6333; Kottar, 7338; Nagarkoil, 6491; Warkalli, 6502; Paravúr, 6678; Kolachel, a rising port, 4768. Besides these, there are 43 towns with over 2000 inhabitants.

Travancore shares with Malabar the *Marumakkatáyam* law, and its many peculiar customs, social and religious. Immigrants from other Districts, as Tamils, Telugus, or Marhattás, who have made Travancore their adopted country, retain their own customs and manners; but the Malayáli customs are well defined. Among the Nambúris, the eldest son alone marries and inherits; the other children have no claim to the family estate or a share of its produce. In contrast to the custom prevailing on the east coast, they allow their girls to remain unmarried to any age, and even to die unmarried. Among the Náirs, the girls are all married formally when children; but when they grow up they may choose men either of their own or the Bráhman caste, and live with them, and the titular husband has no claim. The succession among the Náirs, as in Malabar, follows the line of sisters, and children by the sisters. A man without a sister is without a legal heir, and must adopt a sister to perpetuate the family. The succession to the throne of Travancore is governed by the same law, though the Mahárájá claims to be a Kshattriya. The children of a Náir are therefore heirs to their maternal uncle, performing the religious rites at his decease, and succeeding to his estate. Nambúris and Náirs are very cleanly, and bathe several times daily. The Bráhmans, of course, burn their dead. The Náirs bury or burn their dead according to the custom and means of each family. The burning or burial in all cases takes place in some corner of their own gardens. The tuft of hair, which among

the people on the east coast is worn on the back of the head, is here worn on the crown, and allowed to hang forward.

Agriculture, Land Tenures, etc.—Rice and the cocoa-nut palm are the chief sources of agricultural wealth. Next comes pepper, the vine of which grows round the stems of the jack and other trees. The areca-nut palm is also very valuable; while the jack-tree is the mainstay of the poor, its fruit being used largely as food, and its timber for house-building. The rice produced is not of the finer varieties, except in Nanganád, and is not sufficient to meet local consumption. In the hills, the cardamom grows spontaneously, in the deep shade of the forest; it resembles somewhat the turmeric or ginger plant, but grows to a height of 6 to 10 feet, and throws out at the roots the long shoots which bear the cardamom pods. The owners of the gardens, early in the season, come up from the low country east of the Gháts, cut the brushwood and burn the creepers, and otherwise clear the soil for the growth of the plants as soon as the rains fall. They come back to gather the cardamoms when they ripen, about October or November. The whole crop is delivered to the officers appointed by the State, the value of the *ráyat's* share being paid in money, according to the prices realized. It is an uncertain crop, being greatly dependent on the rains. Within the last twenty years coffee was introduced by General Cullen. About 50,000 acres have been taken up; and at the latest report about 25,000 had been planted, of which about 14,000 were bearing. The favourite soil for coffee is generally from 2000 to 3000 feet above sea level. Cinchona has been tried and abandoned. Tea cultivation is being attempted, as yet without much success; the difficulty lies in the treatment of the leaf, which grows well enough.

Buffaloes and bullocks are used for ploughing, but the latter do not thrive, and indeed the domestic and agricultural animals of Travancore are inferior and ill trained. Fowls, ducks, and turkeys are plentiful and cheap.

The original land tenure of Travancore was identical with that of Malabar—*janam*, or hereditary right in fee simple, subject to no State demand. According to tradition, the Nambúri Bráhmans, by whom Kerala was colonized after its reclamation from the sea by Parasuráma, received a free gift of all the land. This tenure survives at the present day in Travancore only in respect of lands still held (without having changed hands by sale or mortgage, except within the caste) by the Nambúri Bráhmans, and in their own occupation. These are absolute freeholds, *inám* or *lákhiráj*, as they would be called in other parts of India. The largest *janmí* is the Edapalli Chief, with a rent-roll of £7500. This freehold ceases, however, the moment the land passes into other than *janmí* hands for a money consideration.

It then becomes liable to a light tax (*rájábhogam*), about one-sixth of the full tax and one-half of the quantity of seed required to sow the land, while the ordinary tax on such land would average three times the seed. Much *janam* land is now held by strangers on this *kánam* tenure, practically a permanent lease. *Janam* land thus alienated pays rent (often nominal) to the *janmí*, and a land tax of varying amount to Government. Next to *janam* are the ancient holdings of *mádambimárs*, Náyar landlords, whose lands, though commonly called *janam*, are not so, being subject to *rájábhogam* or light tax. All land which has lost the attribute of *janam* becomes *Sarkár* (Government) land. *Janam* tenures forfeited for rebellion or escheated for want of heirs, lands reclaimed from the forest or the backwater, lands purchased for money, alluvial accretions, etc., also become *Sarkár* lands.

Of *Sarkár* land tenures there are several varieties. *Sarkár otti* had its origin in financial necessities. The State borrowed money from the owner of assessed land, and made the interest payable by a deduction from the land tax. Lands on this tenure are very valuable, and can be sold, etc.; but at every alienation, principal and interest of the original debt are reduced 25 per cent.; thus after a number of transfers the tenure ceases to be favourable, and the land begins to pay full rates. *Anubhogam* (personal *inám*) is a tenure subject to a nearly nominal assessment; but, when sold absolutely, the tenure ceases, and the land is transferred to the head of, and dealt with as, *otti*. *Uliyam* or *vritti* are simply service *ináms*. Most of such land are held by Náyars, who are bound to supply, at certain fixed prices, vegetables and provisions for the temples and *utpáras* (feeding-houses), and to render sundry other services. When the service ceases to be rendered, the tenure also ceases.

The earliest survey was made in 1772. No measurements of area were taken; the number of cocoa-nut, areca, and jack trees in each garden was counted, and the area of rice lands was roughly estimated from the seed required to sow each field. Even in later years, regular measurement has only been made in the case of new gardens or new rice-fields brought under cultivation.

The tax on gardens is paid on the number of trees—cocoa-nut, areca, etc. Thus, cocoa-nut pays from 3¾d. to 4¼d. per tree; areca, 1½d. per tree; jack, 4¼d. per tree; palmyra, 2¼d. per tree, or less. Dry lands on which cereals are grown pay from 2¼d. to 7½d. per acre. It is impossible to trace the data on which rice lands were assessed. North of Trivandrum, the average rate of tax was taken at about double the seed (the produce (*meni*) being seven and eight-fold); and in the South Nanjanád, where there is much irrigation, the rate is five times the seed (the produce being twelve to fifteen-fold). The net assessment of rice land averages about 4s. per acre.

Wages have risen considerably during the past few years. The ordinary village labourer used to get only 1½d. to 2¼d. and one meal for a day's work. Now a man cannot be hired for less than 6d. and one meal, though his hours of work have diminished. The large demand for labourers on account of public works, and the increased cost of the necessaries of life, are the main causes of this sudden rise in wages.

Trade, Communications, etc.—The exports are chiefly dried cocoa-nut, coir, cocoa-nuts (in shell), cocoa-nut oil, areca-nut, dry ginger, pepper, salt fish, timber, coffee, cardamoms, and bees-wax. The imports are tobacco, English piece-goods, rice, thread, cotton, copper. The value of exports (in 1875-76) was £790,000, and of imports, £610,000.

Owing to the excellent inland water communication afforded by the backwater, Travancore has not many roads. Lately, however, much progress has been made in road-making. The road from Trivandrum across the Arambúli Pass to Tinnevelli has been thoroughly repaired, and the Arvan Kava line has been provided with a good cart-road. A road to Pirmaid, with branches to both sides of the Gháts, and several other roads, connect these lines. On the whole, internal communication is tolerably complete.

Revenue, Administration, etc.—The gross revenue of the State of Travancore in 1874 was £534,613; its gross expenditure, £532,129. The chief source of revenue is the land tax, which produced £169,365; customs yielded £38,799; arrack and opium duties, £13,499; tobacco duty, £90,974; salt, £98,879; cardamoms and other goods, £22,487; judicial fees, etc., £14,425. In the same year, £101,591 was expended on public works. In 1877-78, the gross revenue was £597,802. No transit duties are levied between Travancore and British territory.

The judicial establishment consists of twenty *munsíf's* courts, sixty criminal and five *zilá* courts, all controlled by a *Sadr* or High Court at the capital. Travancore has no distinct organized police force, as far as the supervising and controlling agency is concerned; the *díwán peshkárs* or divisional officers, the *tahsildárs* and sub-magistrates, are the police functionaries. In 1872, the subordinate ranks of the police force numbered 1995; the proportion of police per square mile of area being 0·29; cost per square mile, £2, 1s. 2d.; cost per head of population, 1½d.

There are four jails, two at the capital, one at Quilon, and the fourth at Alleppi. The average daily number of prisoners in 1875 was 628; the average mortality, 4 per cent.; the average cost per head per annum, £7, 4s. No manufactures are carried on in the jails.

The chief educational institution is the Trivandrum High School and College, which contains over 1000 pupils. There is also a girls' school at Trivandrum, superintended by an English lady, with an attendance

of 60 pupils. There are 8 District schools, feeders to the High School; these are analogous to the *zilá* schools of the Madras Presidency. Then come the vernacular schools, divided into two classes, District and village schools; there are 29 of the former and 198 of the latter, with a total attendance of 10,719 pupils. The schools of the Church, London, and Roman Catholic missions also receive State grants. The attendance in the mission schools is nearly 9000. A special school at Mavelikara, in the Quilon Division, intended to educate the youths of the families of the *tamburáns* or chiefs, was established in 1872-73. A Director of Vernacular Education, with inspectors and deputy inspectors, controls the schools. The total cost of educational establishments in 1874-75, belonging to the *Sarkár*, was, exclusive of furniture, buildings, etc., £9249. 'Travancore does not compare unfavourably with the well-governed provinces of British India in the matter of the education of its people. There are in the country 132,702 persons able to read and write, which gives a proportion of 5·74 educated in every 100.'—(*Census Report.*) Until the year 1861, the *anchal* or local post was maintained only for State purposes; it is now open to the public. There are 74 post offices in Travancore, the total cost of which was (in 1875) £2209; the number of private despatches in 1873 was 207,796, which yielded a revenue of £1156. The military force of the State (1878-79) consists of 1360 infantry and 30 artillerymen, with 4 guns.

Medical Aspects.—In common with the whole belt of coast-line on the western side of India under the Gháts, Travancore has an abundant rainfall; and droughts are almost unknown. Every variety of climate and temperature is found in the State. The climate of the lower country is much the same as that of Malabar; and is influenced in the same way by the long seaboard and the heavy south-west monsoon. From March to the beginning of May it is hot; the readings of the thermometer in the shade are often 90° and 91° F., and seldom below 86°. From June to September is the wet season, when the temperature is not high. October to February is the cold season, and temperature is rarely as high as 80°, except in February. The most characteristic endemic is the disease known as 'Cochin leg;' and fevers are prevalent in some of the inland tracts.

Trevandrum.—Town in Travancore State, Madras.—See TRIVANDRUM.

Tribeni ('*The Three Streams*').—Village in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 59′ 10″ N., long. 88° 26′ 40″ E. The inhabitants live principally by river traffic. This place is so called from being situated at the junction of the Ganges or Húgli, the Saraswatí, and the Jamuná, the last-named stream flowing into the Húglí on its left bank opposite the southern extremity of an extensive island in the middle of the river

facing Tribení. North of the Saraswatí is the broad and high Tribení *ghat*, a magnificent flight of steps, attributed to Mukund Deo, the last sovereign of the Gajapati dynasty of Orissa, who was reigning in the 16th century. South of the Saraswatí lies the village of Tribení itself, which is considered to possess great sanctity. The Rev. Mr. Long, in an article in the *Calcutta Review*, published many years ago, says that Tribení was one of the four *samáj* or places famous for Hindu learning; the others being Nadiyá, Sántipur, and Guptipárá. Formerly, there were over 30 Sanskrit schools here. Tribení was once noted for its trade. South of the village stands a famous mosque, originally a Hindu temple, which contains the tomb of Zafar Khán, described by the late Professor Blochmann in the *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, vol. xxxix., part i. for 1870, p. 282. The principal Hindu festivals held at Tribení are the following:—(1) *Makara Sankránti* or *Uttaráyan*, the day on which the sun enters Capricorn, takes place in January, on the last day of the Hindu month of Paush, and the first day of the succeeding month of Magh. The observances consist of offerings to progenitors, either general or special; to the domestic genii, the guardians of the dwelling; and to the universal gods. The ceremonies are performed within the abode of the householder, and are conducted by the family priest. The great Bathing Festival on Ságar Island is held at the time of the *Makara Sankránti*; and a *melá* or fair at Tribení, which is attended by about 8000 persons. (2) *Bisuva Sankránti*, held in honour of the sun at the time of the vernal equinox, falling within our February; (3) *Báruní*, the great Bathing Festival of Bengal, in honour of Baruna, the god of the waters, held in February or March; (4) *Dasahará*, held in June, in commemoration of the descent of the goddess Ganga from heaven to save the souls of the 60,000 sons of King Ságar, who were reduced to ashes for the crime of assaulting a Bráhman sage; (5) *Kártik*, in honour of Kártikeya, son of the goddess Durgá. All these gatherings are utilized for purposes of trade. For a full account of Tribení, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. pp. 322, 323.

Trichendoor.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras.—See TIRUCHENDUR.

Trichengode.—Town in Salem District, Madras.—See TIRUCHENGOD.

Trichinopoli.—A British District in the Madras Presidency, lying between 10° 37′ and 11° 30′ 30″ N. lat., and between 78° 12′ and 79° 30′ E. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1877-78, 3515 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1871, 1,200,408 souls. The District is bounded on the north-west and north by Salem, on the north and north-east by South Arcot, on the east and south-east by Tanjore, on the south by the Pudukottai State and Madura, and

on the west by Coimbatore. The administrative headquarters are at the city of TRICHINOPOLI.

Physical Aspects.—The surface of the country, though generally flat, is broken here and there by protruding masses of crystalline rock, of which the Trichinopoli Rock in the fort, and the Golden Rock near the central jail, are well-known examples. Many others are scattered over the District, including Ratnagiri, near Kulittalai, and Perumálmalai, near Turaiyúr. The only mountains of any importance are the Pachaimalais (height about 2000 feet), which extend into Salem District. These are very malarious.

The river KAVERI (Cauvery), and its branch the COLEROON, are the most important rivers in Trichinopoli. The former enters the District at its western extremity, and traverses it from west to east. About 11 miles west of the city of Trichinopoli it separates into two branches, one of which, flowing south-east, retains the name of Káveri, while the other, running north-east, is termed the Coleroon. These rivers almost rejoin each other about 10 miles east of Trichinopoli city, where it has been found necessary to separate them by an artificial embankment. The tract thus enclosed by the two rivers is known as the island of Sríran-gam. After its separation from the Káveri, the Coleroon flows north-east through the *táluk* of Trichinopoli, and farther on forms the boundary between Udayárpálaiyam *táluk* and Tanjore District. The river Vellár forms the northern boundary of a portion of the District, separating it from South Arcot. A few villages in the extreme west are irrigated by the Amarávati, which forms the boundary between Trichinopoli and Coimbatore.

The chief minerals of economic value are building-stone and stone useful for road metalling, including gneiss, limestone, and laterite. Pottery materials, including pipe-clay, gypsum, etc., are common; but the gypsum is generally impure. Common salt effloresces from the soil in many parts, and is collected by the poor for household use. The cretaceous rocks contain ferruginous nodules, which were formerly smelted when fuel was more abundant. One or two villages in the north of Musiri *táluk* are the only places where iron is now manufactured. Copper-ores are found in small quantities. A shell marble is found in Perambálur *táluk*, of which the tops of tables, paper-weights, and similar ornaments are made. The geological survey of Trichinopoli was made in 1857-60 (*Memorials of the Geological Survey*, vol. iv. parts 1 and 2).

Though the District is on the whole well wooded, nothing worthy of the name of forest is to be found in it. Considerable stretches of alluvium along the river Káveri have been enclosed by the Forest Department and converted into fuel plantations, composed chiefly of Casuarina and *babúl* (Acacia arabica). Small hills and other restricted

tracts along the railway line have also been enclosed for fuel reserves. A few stunted sandal-wood trees are to be found on the Pachaimalai Hills.

The larger wild animals are almost extinct; a tiger now and then makes his appearance, and bears are found on the Pachaimalai Hills and in Perambalúr *táluk*. Snipe, teal, and wild duck are plentiful, but no game of any other description.

History.—The earliest trustworthy information regarding that portion of Southern India, of which Trichinopoli forms a part, indicates that it was formerly divided between the Chola, Chera, and Pándya kingdoms. The origin of these is obscure. (*See* TINNEVELLI DISTRICT.) It appears probable that they existed as early as the 5th century B.C. They lasted under various forms till the 16th century. During the greater portion of this period, Trichinopoli formed a part of the Chola kingdom, the capital of which was at one time fixed at Uraiyúr, a suburb of the present city of Trichinopoli. Before the close of the 16th century, the whole country fell under the sway of the Náyakkans. The founder of the dynasty was Viswanátha (the son of an officer of the King of Vijayanagar), who established himself as king of MADURA in 1559, and subjugated Trichinopoli soon afterwards. The greater portion of the fort of Trichinopoli, and most of the city itself, were built in his reign. The Náyakkans ruled Trichinopoli and Madura from 1559 to 1740. The greatest of them was the famous Tirumala Náyakkan, who died in 1659. His grandson, Choka Náyakkan, removed the capital of the kingdom from Madura to Trichinopoli, where he raised the building known as the Nawáb's Palace. Chanda Sáhib, a relation of the Muhammadan Nawáb of Arcot, got possession of Trichinopoli in 1740 by deceiving Mínákshi, the widow of the last of the Náyakkans. In the contest between the French and English in the south of India between 1749 and 1763, the French espoused the cause of Chanda Sáhib, and the English that of Muhammad Alí, afterwards Nawáb of Arcot. After his defeat at the battle of Ambúr, the latter prince fled to Trichinopoli, where he was besieged by Chanda Sáhib, the French, and the Marhattás, who took up their position in the island of Srírangam. It was to draw off a portion of the besieging force from Trichinopoli that Clive, then an officer in the garrison there, undertook his famous expedition to Arcot. This move had the desired effect, as it obliged Chanda Sáhib to send a large number of his troops to join in the siege of that city. Shortly afterwards, a detachment was sent under Major Lawrence, through Tanjore District, to relieve Trichinopoli. The French attempted to intercept it, but without success; while Captain Dalton almost immediately afterwards successfully attacked a body of men sent by Dupleix to reinforce the army in Srírangam, and prevented it joining the besieging force. On this Chanda Sáhib's

troops deserted him, he was himself put to death, and the siege of Trichinopoli was virtually raised. The principal operations during this portion of the war were carried on in the Srírangam island, and in the villages along the old road from Madras to Trichinopoli. On Chanda Sáhib's death, the General of the Mysore (Maisúr) army, who had up to that time assisted Muhammad Alí, claimed Trichinopoli as the reward of his services. His application to be put in possession of the city was refused, and he retreated to Srírangam, and, aided by the French, laid siege a second time to Trichinopoli, attempting to reduce the place by famine. Major Lawrence was sent to the assistance of the besieged force; and shortly after his arrival, the French in Srírangam were reinforced by a large detachment sent by Dupleix. On this, the besiegers moved their camp and took up a position a little beyond the present racecourse, with a view to intercept all supplies brought into the city. Here they were attacked and utterly defeated by Major Lawrence in the battle of the Golden Rock. After this Major Lawrence went to Tanjore to obtain reinforcements from the Marhattá Rájá of that place. On his return, the French unsuccessfully tried to intercept him as he marched towards the city through the open plain lying to the south-east, not far from the site of the present central jail. In the battle of the Sugar-loaf Rock, fought not very far from the same place, the French and their allies were again defeated. The only other incident in the actions round Trichinopoli of any interest, was the unsuccessful attempt made to surprise the city by a night attack on Dalton battery, situated north-west of the fort, which is now almost the only undemolished portion of the old fortifications. A graphic account of all these events is given in Orme's history. The siege of Trichinopoli was at last raised on the conclusion of a provisional treaty between the French and English in 1754. War, however, broke out again almost immediately. But the interest in this portion of the conflict centres in the siege of Fort St. George, and Sir Eyre Coote's victories; and the skirmishes that took place round Trichinopoli were insignificant and unimportant. By the treaty of Paris, concluded in 1763, Muhammad Alí was recognised as Nawáb of the Karnatic. In the wars that followed soon afterwards with Haidar Alí and Tipú, the District of Trichinopoli was devastated more than once; but it was not the scene of any of the important actions that were fought.

Population.—The earliest attempt made to ascertain the population of the District was in 1821-22, when it was stated to be 788,196. In 1836-37, the population was returned at 552,477, or more than one-third less the figure arrived at fifteen years previously. The methods of these early attempts are so untrustworthy, that it would be rash to assume that the population of the District really did decrease between 1822 and 1838. Since 1851-52, a quinquennial Census has been taken.

In 1851-52, the population was returned at 709,196; in 1866-67, at 1,006,826. These figures are also untrustworthy. In 1871, the first detailed Census was taken, and returns approaching to accuracy were obtained. The results showed 588,134 males and 612,274 females; total, 1,200,408.

The most numerous Hindu castes are the Vellálars (200,853) and the Vannians (398,410). Bráhmans number 31,428. Classified according to religion, there were 1,115,776 Hindus, 32,024 Musalmáns, 50,822 native Christians, 1400 European and Eurasian Christians, and 143 Jains. Of the native converts, 48,889 are Roman Catholics and only 1933 Protestants. The District formed part of the great Jesuit mission of Madura, founded in the beginning of the 17th century. Political events in Europe almost deprived the mission of priests for nearly seventy-eight years (1759-1837).

The most important towns in the District are TRICHINOPOLI city (73,893); SRIRANGAM, famous for its Vishnu temple (11,271); Turaiyúr (6308); Mahádánapuram (6016); Udayárpálaiyam (5879); Ariyalúr (5852); Kurumbalúr (5112). There are also 96 towns with a population exceeding 2000. In many cases, however, those so-called towns are merely clusters of hamlets, often containing only a few houses each, which have been grouped together for purposes of revenue administration. Trichinopoli and Srírangam are the only municipalities in the District. The receipts of these in 1877-78 were £6729 and £1257 respectively.

Agriculture, etc.—The chief crops are rice, *cholam* (Sorghum vulgare), *rágí* (Eleusine corocana), *kambu* (Holcus spicata), considered the staple food of the District, *varagu* (Paspalum scrobiculatum), *dál* (Cajanus indicus), horse gram (Dolichos biflorus), *ulundu* (Phaseolus mungo), cotton, tobacco, indigo, sugar-cane, cocoa-nut, plantain, areca-nut, chillies. The staple crop in the irrigated portions of the District, which lie along both banks of the Káveri (Cauvery) and Coleroon, is rice. In the unirrigated parts, *cholam*, *kambu*, and *varagu* are grown in almost equal quantities. There are two main varieties of rice in the District known as *kár* and *pishánam* or *sambá*. The former is an inferior description of grain, consumed as a rule by the poor. It is usually sown in November and December, and harvested in March and April; but it is also sometimes sown in July and August, and harvested in November and December. *Sambá* is a superior sort of rice used by the better classes. When grown as a single crop, it is sown in July and harvested in December; and when as a second crop, often after a first crop of *kár*, it is sown in November and harvested in April. Rice is sometimes sown broadcast, and sometimes in seed-beds and transplanted afterwards.

The total area of the District amounts to 2,294,191 acres, of which

235,195 are *inám* or revenue-free and 427,987 are held on *zamíndárí* tenure. Accurate statistics are not available for these lands; but of the remainder, 1,046,000 acres are under cultivation, 326,914 uncultivated but capable of cultivation, and 258,295 uncultivable. The area under the principal crops in 1875-76 was—rice, 134,007 acres; *kambu*, 157,193; *varagu*, 145,803; *cholam*, 140,176; *rágí*, 104,007; cotton, 46,528; *dál*, 28,028; and *gram*, 25,022 acres. The out-turn of an acre of the best rice land is between 30 and 40 *kalams*, 30 *kalams* being equal to 1 ton 11 cwts. 11 lbs. On land of this description, a second crop, averaging about half the first, can ordinarily be raised. The irrigated lands along the rivers are as a rule owned by men who themselves take no part in the cultivation; but leave it entirely to labourers (*pallars*), who remain on the same land from generation to generation, and are paid by receiving a share of the produce. Bullocks and buffaloes are the only animals used in agriculture.

Agricultural labourers are generally paid in grain. From 1875 to 1878, their money wages averaged 8s. a month. The wages of common masons, carpenters, and smiths averaged £1, 0s. 10d. a month. The average price of 'second sort' rice during the five years ending 1874-75 was 16·4 imperial *sers* for 2s.; in 1875-76, 15·3; in 1876-77 (famine year), 11·0; in 1877-78 (also affected by famine), 7·4; in 1878-79, 8·6 *sers* for 2s. Similarly the price of *kambu* (the staple food) in the five years ending 1874 varied from 28 to 39; in 1875, from 26 to 34; in 1876, from 11 to 31; in 1877, from 8 to 20; in 1878, from 11 to 20 *sers* for 2s. An imperial *ser* equals 2·2046 lbs.

Natural Calamities, etc.—The District does not suffer to any great extent from either blight or flood. When it first came under British rule, the irrigated portions of the District were constantly flooded by the Káveri (Cauvery) and Coleroon overflowing their banks. These rivers are now well embanked, and such disasters are almost unknown. The District is not especially liable to famine, as the rivers just named, on which the greater portion of the 'wet' lands are dependent, seldom if ever fail. The dry crops are of course as uncertain here as elsewhere; but owing to the large extent of river-irrigated land, Trichinopli is not very largely dependent on them for its food supply. The last famine was that of 1876-77. The distress which then prevailed was not due to failure of crops, although these had been deficient for two years, especially in the unirrigated tract, but to a rise of prices caused by exportation of grain to other Districts. The statement given above shows how prices varied during the famine.

Communications, etc.—In 1878-79, there were 536 miles of imperial and local roads. Trichinopoli is on the whole well provided with means of communication. There are no canals. The South Indian Railway traverses the District from east to west, running through Trichinopoli

and Kullitalai *táluks* (55¼ miles). The southern extension of this line runs from Trichinopoli city through the south-eastern portion of Kulittalai *táluk*, and thence into Madura (37¾ miles). In 1876, these lines carried to and from the ten stations in the District 1,073,692 passengers and 41,120 tons of goods.

Trade, Manufactures, etc.—The most important local industries are weaving and the manufacture of cigars. The latter is almost entirely confined to Trichinopoli city, whence a large number of cigars are sent to all parts of India. The tobacco used is chiefly imported from Dindigal, that of local growth being coarse and inferior. The goldsmiths of Trichinopoli also are of considerable repute. Trichinopoli city is the principal seat of trade; but there are numerous fairs all over the District, held, as a rule, weekly, for grain, cattle, etc. The principal exports are grain of all kinds, especially rice; the imports, tobacco and salt. No newspapers are published in the District. There are two printing presses, one the Government District press, the other owned by a native firm in Trichinopoli. In both, work is turned out in English and Tamil (the prevailing language).

Administration.—Under the Muhammadan Government the revenue in the irrigated parts of the District was collected by an equal division of the produce between Government and cultivators; and in the unirrigated parts, a money assessment was levied according to the nature of the soil. When Trichinopoli passed into the hands of the English (in 1800), money payments were introduced everywhere; and, with a few exceptions, one-half of the produce was taken as the share of the Government. Up to the introduction of the revised settlement in 1864, few changes were made; but the assessment was from time to time reduced. The whole of the District was first surveyed and the lands classified according to the quality of the soil, proximity to markets, etc. Revised rates of assessment were then introduced, ranging from 2s. to 15s. an acre on 'wet' land, and 6d. to 7s. on 'dry,' the mass of 'wet' lands being charged from 5s. to 12s., and of the 'dry' not more than 2s. The amount of the assessment for the year before the settlement was £166,925, and for the year in which it was introduced, £119,442. In the following seven years, however, the land revenue increased by about £30,000, principally owing to an increase of 24 per cent. in the extent of land cultivated. The total net revenue of the District in 1801-02 was £148,952; in 1860-61, it had risen to £163,557; in 1870-71, to £192,963. The total expenditure on civil administration in 1860-61 was £19,706; in 1870-71, it was £14,487. The land in 1860-61 contributed £150,445 of the revenue, and in 1870-71, £163,363. In 1878-79, the land revenue was £185,433, and the gross revenue, £213,480. The total cost of officials and police of all kinds was £14,627.

The number of estates upon the rent-roll of the District in 1850-51 was 68,255; in 1860-61, 102,277; and in 1870-71, 140,997. The average land revenue paid by each estate in 1850-51 was £2; in 1860-61, £1, 8s.; in 1870-71, 19s. For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 5 *táluks* in three divisions, under the Collector, Head Assistant Collector, and a Deputy Collector. All these are magistrates, and have under them 10 sub-magistrates (5 of whom are *tahsíldárs* in charge of *táluks*). There is also a cantonment magistrate at Trichinopoli (the only military station). The District and Sessions Judge has under him 3 District *munsífs* for civil suits. The village head-men have petty judicial powers, civil and criminal. The force numbered 892 men and 15 officers. The District contains 1 central, 1 District, and 10 subsidiary jails. The central jail is near Trichinopoli, and receives prisoners from all parts of Madras, from Burma, and the Straits. The average daily number of prisoners in 1878 was, in the central jail, 1149; District jail, 265; subsidiary jails, 77. The cost per prisoner was £8, 12s. in the central jail, and £7, 10s. in the District jail. Six per cent. of the people can read and write. Of these, only 478 are females. In 1877-78, there were 271 schools under inspection, with 8299 pupils. Most of these are aided by grants from local and municipal funds. There are also a large number of village (*payál*) schools of which no statistics are available.

Medical Aspects, etc.—Trichinopoli is one of the hottest and driest Districts in Madras, though free from extremes of heat and cold. In the high unirrigated parts there is much sun-glare and reflected and radiated heat, and at times hot winds with clouds of dust. At certain seasons the atmosphere is very sultry and enervating. Both monsoons are felt, but the heaviest rainfall is brought by the north-east monsoon. From 1866-67 to 1875-76, the annual rainfall averaged 34·08 inches. The mean yearly temperature is 85·5 F. The climate is equable, and it is probably for this reason not unfavourable to the health of either natives or Europeans. For the five years ending 1876, the reported death-rate was 19·7 per thousand.

Trichinopoli (*Tirusiráppalli*, 'The City of the Three-headed *Rákshasa*').—City in Trichinopoli District, Madras. Lat. 10° 49′ 45″ N., long. 78° 44′ 21″ E.; pop. (1871), 73,893, inhabiting 13,262 houses. The administrative headquarters and principal town of the District, a garrison town and municipality, with 2 railway stations. It is situated on the right bank of the river Káveri (Cauvery), about 56 miles from the sea. Trichinopoli is a place of much historic interest, having been the scene of many well-known sieges, etc. (For an account of which, see the foregoing article on TRICHINOPOLI DISTRICT.) The city consists of the fort, situated about a mile south of the river; the military cantonment (or rather the civil and military station, for, strictly speaking,

here is no cantonment, as the whole is under municipal control), and 17 villages and hamlets, which are included in the municipal limits. Of these, the best known is Uraiyúr, which is the oldest part of the city, and was at one time the capital of the Chola kingdom. It has been identified with Ὄρθουρα, mentioned by Ptolemy (130 A.D.). Visvanátha, who died in 1573, the founder of the Náyakka dynasty of Madura, fortified Trichinopoli, and built a palace. One of his descendants, Choka Náyakka, who died in 1682, built what is now called the Nawáb's palace. The fort is rectangular, measuring about a mile by half a mile. Formerly, it was surrounded by ramparts and a ditch. The entire space enclosed by the fort is densely populated. The streets in this part are narrow, but on the whole regular. Inside the fort is the Trichinopoli Rock, a mass of gneiss, which rises, like many others in the District, abruptly out of the plain to a height of 273 feet above the level of the street at its foot. The ascent to this rock (*Tayumánaswámi-malai*) is partly by a covered stone staircase, and partly by steps cut in the rock itself. Upon it is a Siva temple, and at the top a small temple dedicated to Pillaiyár (Ganapati). Every year (August) a festival at this temple attracts a crowd of pilgrims. In 1849, owing to some confusion in descending, a panic occurred, and at least 250 persons lost their lives in the crush. A few hundred yards to the south of the Rock is the Nawáb's palace, which was restored in 1873 at a cost of £3681, and is now used for various courts and offices. Between the Rock and the north-west or main guard gate of the fort is a handsome *teppakulam* (raft-tank), in the houses round which the European officers lived when Trichinopoli was first a military station. One of these houses is called Clive's, but it is doubtful if he ever lived there. Formerly, the troops were stationed within the fort, next in Uraiyúr, and afterwards removed to the present lines, 1½ mile south of the fort. The garrison consists of 1 battery of artillery, a detachment of European infantry, and 3 Native infantry regiments. The municipality, established in 1866, has effected great improvements. It has removed the old ramparts; the moat, formerly a nuisance and source of sickness, has been filled up and laid out as a boulevard. A municipal market was built in 1868, which yields a large profit. Street lighting and sanitary measures have also been introduced. In 1877-78, the municipal income was £6729, of which £4568 was derived from taxation (*i.e.* about 10¼d. a head). Trichinopoli is well known for its cigars, and for its peculiar and beautiful gold jewellery (*see* District article). The city contains, besides military hospitals, a municipal hospital (at which, in 1876-77, 815 in-patients and 17,739 out-patients were treated), a meteorological observatory, the central and District jails (*see* District article). Trichinopoli contains over 8000 native Roman Catholics, and is the residence of a bishop (the Vicar-Apostolic of Madura). There

are several Catholic churches, two of which are large and important. Heber, the Protestant Bishop of Calcutta, died here in 1826, and is buried in St. John's Church. The Lutherans, the Wesleyans, and the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel have missions here. The high school of the last-named in 1876 had 664 pupils, and was the most important school in the District. The population includes a large number of the *kallar* (thief) caste, and hence, notwithstanding the police, the European residents are under the necessity of employing watchmen of that caste to protect their houses.

Trichúr (*Tirushavaperúr*).—Town in the Trichúr District of Cochin State, Madras. Lat. 10° 32′ N., long. 76° 15′ 10″ E.; pop. (1871), 1109, inhabiting 250 houses. A very ancient town, attributed by local tradition to Parasu Ráma; it was taken by Haidar Alí in 1776. There is a small palace belonging to the Rájá, a public library, a college, and a fine temple. The fortifications, now out of repair, were erected in 1774. The *zilá* or District court and jail are here, as well as a Roman Catholic church, and an establishment of the Church Missionary Society. Active trade with Pálghát and Cochin; Trichúr being the head of water-carriage on the Cochin backwater.

Tríkotá.—Mountain in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab, forming part of the range bounding the valley of Srínagar on the south. Lat. 32° 58′ N., long. 74° 37′ E. (Thornton). The summit is covered with snow almost throughout the year. According to Thornton, on its northern flank a spring gushes from the rock in regular pulsations—hot in winter, but cooled by intermixture of the melting snows during the summer months. The Hindus regard this spring as holy, and pay pilgrimages to it from considerable distances.

Trimbak.—Municipal town in Násik District, Bombay; situated in lat. 19° 54′ 50″ N., and long. 73° 33′ 50″ E., 20 miles south-west of Násik town. Pop. (1872), 3763; municipal revenue, £115. Trimbak is a place of Hindu pilgrimage; and besides being visited by all the pilgrims who go to Násik, has a special fair in honour of Trimbakeswar Mahádeo, held on the occasion of the planet Jupiter entering the sign Leo, which event happens generally once every twelve years. The last of these festivals was held in September 1872, and was attended by thousands of pilgrims from all parts of India.

Trimohiní.—Market village in Jessor District, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 54′ N., and long. 89° 10′ E., 5 miles west of Kesabpur (of which it is in reality little more than an out-station), at the point where the Bhadrá river formerly left the Kabadak. Trimohiní is a considerable market place, Chandra being the name of the village. Formerly it was an important seat of the sugar trade, and contained several refineries, all now closed; at present it is only a depôt for the purchase of sugar for export, and not for its manufacture. A *melá* or fair is held here

every March, at the time of the *Báruní* or Bathing Festival. Half a mile from Trimohiní is a small village called Mirzánagar, the residence of the Faujdár or military governor of Jessor in Muhammadan times, which was stated in 1815 to be one of the three largest towns of the District, but is now an insignificant hamlet.

Trinomalai.—Chief town of Tiruvannámalai *táluk*, South Arcot District, Madras.—*See* TIRUVANNAMALAI.

Tripasúr (*Tirupasúr*).—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras. Lat. 13° 8′ 20″ N., long. 79° 55′ E.; pop. (1871), 2847, inhabiting 420 houses. Tripasúr was formerly a considerable cantonment and a station for cadets in the East India Company's service, and more recently for pensioned European soldiers, for whom there are the necessary cottage-quarters and a school. All these buildings, as well as a Hindu temple, lie within the fort, the remains of the stone walls of which still exist. This fort was formerly valuable as a protection to the adjacent country from the ravages of the Pálegárs. It was captured by Sir Eyre Coote in 1781.

Tripatty.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras.—*See* TIRUPATI.

Tripatúr.—Town in Salem District, Madras.—*See* TIRUPATUR.

Triplicane.—Suburb of Madras.—*See* MADRAS CITY.

Tripunathorai.—Town in Kannayannúr District, Cochin State, Madras, and the usual residence of the Rájá. Lat. 9° 56′ 40″ N., long. 76° 23′ 19″ E.; pop. (1872), 8493, residing in about 2000 houses. Tripunathorai is 8 miles east of Cochin, and 5¾ miles from Ernakollam, the official and commercial capital of the State. The fort, the recently built palace of the Rájá, and the residences of members of the reigning family, are the chief features of the town, which is buried in cocoa-nut palms, and cut off from easy access by tidal creeks, swamps, rice-fields and heavy sand. The fortifications inclose rather than defend the buildings within them. Curious specimens of local architecture may be discovered in the palace and other buildings, illustrating the local manners and customs. Inside the fort is the Rájá's own temple, a small *bázár* inhabited by Bráhmans, Náirs, and Konkánis, and a large *utapara* (feeding-house) and tank. The *bázár* or *pettai* (pettah) outside the fort is small, and, as is usual in Cochin State, inhabited by Christians (Roman Catholics), who have a small church. It is only lately that a cart-road has been made to Ernakollam, although the water communication is tedious and circuitous. Improved communications increase the risk of pollution by the access of low-caste intruders, and endanger the aristocratic retirement which is the most noticeable characteristic of the place.

Trisrota.—River of Bengal.—*See* TISTA.

Tritani.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras.—*See* TIRUTANI.

Trivadi.—Town in South Arcot District, Madras.—*See* TIRUVADI.

Trivandrum (*Tiruvánantapuram*).—Town in Trivandrum District, Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 8° 29′ 3″ N., long. 76° 59′ 9″ E.; pop. (1875), 57,611, including about 70 Europeans; number of houses, 11,598. Trivandrum is the capital of Travancore, and the residence of the Mahárájá and his court. As one of the chief centres of an ancient social system peculiar to the Malayálam country, it has much of special interest. The neighbourhood is very picturesque. The town lies about 2 miles from the sea, where a flat tract of sand, and of marsh partially reclaimed, meets the undulating country which rises to the Western Gháts. The Karumanai river and several minor water-courses find their way to the sea in the immediate vicinity; and as the outfall is imperfect, the lower parts of the town are unhealthy; the drainage is bad, and the ventilation is impeded by closely planted cocoa-nut trees and other dense vegetation. Several fine public buildings, country houses of the Mahárájá and princes, most of the European and many of the best native houses, are, however, built on isolated laterite hills or plateaux, which rise from 50 to nearly 200 feet above sea level; and these enjoy pure air, and command charming views over the surrounding country. The fort and a great part of the crowded native town is on the low level. The fort, which is of no military value, is surrounded by a high wall, which, however useful for defence in former days, now only serves to keep out persons of low-caste.

Within the fort are the palaces of the Mahárájá and of the princes and princesses of the royal family, and the great temple of Padmanábha ('the lotus-naveled,' a name of Vishnu in the Malayálam country). These buildings are picturesque in their irregularity, and display the local characteristics of high-pitched gables, projecting ridges, deep eaves, overhanging balconies, verandahs with massive wooden pillars and elaborate wood-carving, testifying alike to the profusion of timber in the State and the skill of its artisans. The temple is of great antiquity, and is held in the highest regard. Popular tradition, which seems to have good foundation, declares that the rise of the town on this site and its selection as the capital of Travancore are due to the pre-existence and sanctity of the shrine. The temple enjoys a land revenue of £7500, and, unlike many temples in Travancore, is more or less independent of the State. The abandonment of the fort as a residence has been often pressed on successive Mahárájás for sanitary reasons, but without effect, owing to old associations and Bráhmanical influences. The frequent religious ceremonies required of Travancore princes, which can only be performed with efficacy at the shrine of Padmanábha, will probably long necessitate the usual residence of the Mahárájá in the immediate neighbourhood of the temple.

A rude mint, which coins hardly anything but copper, and a few other offices are still kept up in the fort, but most of the public offices have been moved to better situations. Trivandrum is the headquarters of the British Resident, an officer who is the medium of communication between the Madras Government and the Mahárájá, and who is consulted and entitled to advise on questions of importance affecting the administration. The military cantonment, in which are the arsenal, hospital, and offices of the Náir brigade, with the houses of several European officers and others, is well situated north of the town. The brigade is a force of about 1400 men, chiefly Náirs, maintained by the Travancore State for purposes of display and occasional police duty. It is commanded by 3 European officers of the Madras Army appointed by the British Government. The large establishments of the Díwán, who under the Mahárájá is the head of the administration, with the *sadr* court and other departments, are accommodated in a handsome range of buildings of classic style, erected about twelve years ago. Trivandrum contains a medical school, and is liberally supplied with hospitals, which are under the general superintendence of the *darbár* (court) physician, a European officer. They consist of a civil or general hospital, a charity hospital to which is attached a small-pox hospital, lunatic asylum, lying-in hospital, and jail hospital, besides 4 dispensaries. The Mahárájá's college, completed about eight years ago, is a commodious and handsome building. It is conducted by a European principal, with qualified European and native masters, and takes a high place among the educational institutions of the Madras Presidency.

The observatory was built by the Mahárájá in 1836; and for many years observations of much scientific interest were recorded. The first astronomer was John Caldecott (1837-49), and the second Mr. J. A. Broun, F.R.S. (1852-65). The observations of the latter were chiefly magnetic and meteorological; and in 1854, he established a branch observatory on the summit of Agastyamalai (6200 feet above the sea). But in 1865, it was considered, not unreasonably, that the expenditure was greater than the State finances warranted, and the establishment was broken up. It is now under native management. The building, which was planned and erected by Captain Horsley, of the Madras Engineers, is beautifully situated on one of the laterite hills above mentioned, 195 feet above sea level, and is one of the favourite unofficial residences of the Mahárájá. But perhaps the most interesting modern building is the Napier Museum, which has been erected in the public gardens, on plans embracing the prominent features of Malayálam architecture, on the principle of utilizing to the utmost local materials, practically and ornamentally. Out of the four

jails in Travancore, two are at Trivandrum, the central jail and a subsidiary jail. The chief out of the 45 *utparas* (feeding-houses) maintained by the State is also at Trivandrum, and is known as the *ágárasála*. The Travancore State *Gazette*, in English and Malayálam, is published weekly at Trivandrum. The only other newspaper in Travancore, the *Travancore Times*, is published thrice a month at Nagarkovil. The Government press was established about forty years ago, when the Trivandrum English school came into existence. The British Indian Government telegraph office at Trivandrum is kept up at the wish of the Travancore State, by which it is subsidized. Trivandrum, though not a commercial centre of importance, or specially noted for any particular industry, has greatly improved of late years.

The local roads are numerous and excellent, and very useful communications with adjoining Districts have been opened during the last ten years. There is no regular port; the surf on the coast is high, and the few vessels which touch have to lie out a long way from the shore. A succession of canals running along the coast to the north connects the local backwaters, and with only one break puts the town in direct communication with the great backwater system of northern Travancore and Cochin and with the Madras Railway. The break is at Warkalli, about 20 miles north of Trivandrum, where high laterite headlands abut on the sea. Heavy works were begun some years ago to remove this obstacle, and by open cuttings and tunnels to complete the continuity of the water-way. These works are still in progress. A railway to the south, passing the historic Arambúli lines into Tinnevelli, and joining the South Indian Railway, is under consideration.

Trombay (*Turmbhen*).—Port in the Salsette Subdivision of Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay. Lat. 19° N., long. 73° 4′ E. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74 returned at £36,344, viz. imports, £4322, and exports, £32,022.

Tsa-bay-gan.—Revenue circle in the Poung-day township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 3459; gross revenue, £727.

Tsa-bay-yún.—Township and revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma.—*See* TSAM-BAY-RUN.

Tsa-dú-thí-rí-gún.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; adjoining Rangoon District, and stretching westward from the Pegu Yoma range. Pop. (1878), 9121; gross revenue, £2452.

Tsa-gú.—An island forming a revenue circle of Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 11½ square miles; pop. (1878), 2631; land revenue, £274, and capitation tax £269.

Tsaing-pywon.—Revenue circle in the Le-myet-hna township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 52 square miles; pop. (1878), 3589. Extends in the west towards the Arakan Yoma range, which is crossed by a pass from the Toung stream, at an elevation of about 1500 feet above the sea. In the south-east, the country is low, and subject to inundation. The inhabitants are engaged in agriculture and fishing. Gross revenue (1878), £780.

Tsam-bay-rún (*Tsa-bay-yún*).—Township in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 649 square miles. The northern portion of this tract, which lies east of the Daga river (its north-western boundary), formerly constituted a separate township called Kyoung-gún. In the south-west, the country is undulating; and in the north-east, rice cultivation is carried on. Farther north and east, the land is in places low and swampy, and in others covered with tree and grass jungle, passing, near the junction of the Daga and Shwe-gnyoung, the chief rivers of Tsam-bay-rún, into good rice land again. In the north-east corner of the township, a large area has been rendered available for rice by an embankment. This township comprises 8 revenue circles. Total population (1877-78), 43,820; gross revenue, £15,186. Headquarters at Kyún-pyaw town.

Tsam-bay-rún.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name, now joined to Kyoung-gún, in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 55 square miles, extending along the right bank of the Daga river. The country is generally low and swampy, and much intersected by creeks. Pop. (1878), 4050, mainly engaged in fishing. Good dry-weather roads. Gross revenue (1878), £1285.

Tsam-pa-na-go.—Revenue circle in the Martaban township of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877-78), 4402, mainly Karengs; land revenue, £389, and capitation tax, £432.

Tsan-pu (*Sangpu*).—River of Tibet, beyond the limits of India, but forming the upper waters of the BRAHMAPUTRA. The Tsan-pu rises on the northern side of the Himálayas, in about 31° N. lat., and 83° E. long., not far from the sources of the Indus and the Sutlej; thence it flows in an easterly direction through the whole length of Tibet, passing near the capital, Lhása. The greater portion of its course has been explored; but an absolute blank in our information meets us when we attempt to follow it through the eastern hill barrier of Tibet. It is, however, now agreed that the Tsan-pu takes the name of the Dihang, under which appellation it enters Assam and becomes one of the three swift rivers which unite to form the Brahmaputra in lat. 27° 70′ N., and long. 95° 50′ E. D'Anville, Dalrymple, and certain French geographers were rather disposed to regard it as the upper channel of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Indeed, in Dalrymple's map

accompanying Syme's *Embassy to Ava*, the Tsan-pu is shown as one of the sources of the Irawadi; but their point of union was undefined. (Some notice of the more general aspects of the Tsan-pu will be found in my article, INDIA, vol. iv. p. 138.) The lower course of the Tsan-pu is still one of the unsettled problems of geography. It flows through territories inhabited by savage tribes, who are sufficiently under the influence of Tibet to resent all advances on the part of Europeans, and have ere now murdered adventurous travellers. The country is also extremely difficult to traverse, being obstructed by rocky precipices and narrow chasms, where none but the practised mountaineer could make his way.

Tsan-rwe.—The southern township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. In the east, the country is mountainous and forest-clad, producing teak and other valuable timber; in the west, it is low and liable to inundation. The township is traversed from north to south by the Hlaing river, which receives drainage from the Pegu Yoma range, and communicates with the Irawadi on the west. Pop. (1878), 62,859; land revenue, £8276. Headquarters at Tsan-rwe, a village with 1193 inhabitants, containing a court-house and police station.

Tsa-wa.—Revenue circle in the central township of Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 2990, chiefly Arakanese. Main product, rice. Capitation tax (1877), £240, and land revenue, £307.

Tsaw-kai.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division British Burma. Pop. (1877), 3027; gross revenue, £361.

Tsee-beng.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma.—*See* TSI-BENG.

Tseen-khyoon.—Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma.—*See* TSIN-KHYUN.

Tsek-khaw.—Revenue circle in the Mye-bún township of Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 42 square miles; pop. (1878), 3162; land revenue, £385, and capitation tax, £277.

Tsek-lai-doung.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-gyeng township of Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877-78), 3207; gross revenue, £399.

Tshan-daw.—A small pagoda situated amid the hills on the left bank of the Sandoway river, about half a mile from Sandoway town, Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Built in 784 A.D. by King Gnyo-kheng to enshrine a hair of Gautama. The inhabitants of Sandoway town spend one day at this temple in March, June, and October of each year, spending the other days during which their feasts last at the pagodas of An-daw and Nan-daw.

Tshat-thwa.—Revenue circle in the southern township of Sandoway

District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 121 square miles. Chief products, rice and sesamum. Pop. (1879), 2465; land revenue, £166, and capitation tax, £216.

Tshay-hnit-rwa. — Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Extends on the east to the Pegu Yoma range, in which part the country is covered with teak and other valuable timber. Game abounds. Pop. (1878), 6671, of whom 6057 are Burmese; gross revenue, £1446.

Tshee-daw.—Revenue circle in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma.—*See* TSHI-DAW.

Tshee-goon.—Village in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma.—*See* TSHI-GUN.

Tsheng-baik.—Revenue circle in the U-rí-toung (East) township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1878), 2721; gross revenue, £1552.

Tsheng-dai.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Well cultivated in the south, and hilly in the north; watered by the Irawadi. Pop. (1877), 3463; gross revenue, £852.

Tsheng-dúp.—Revenue circle in the Mye-dai township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 55 square miles. Chief products—rice, cotton, and sesamum. Pop. (1878), 2739; gross revenue, £590.

Tsheng-hpyú-kywon.—Revenue circle in the U-rí-toung (West) township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1878), 3554; gross revenue, £1273.

Tshí-daw.—Revenue circle in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Chief products—rice, sesamum, and cardamoms. Pop. (1878), 2308; gross revenue, £427.

Tshiep-tha.—Revenue circle in the Pya-pún township of Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Inundated during the rainy season. Pop. (1877), 4713, chiefly engaged in gardening and fishing; gross revenue, £1411.

Tshí-gún.—Village in the Ta-pwon township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A station on the Irawadi Valley (State) Railway. Pop. (1878), 1789.

Tshún-lai (*Tshoon-lai*).—Revenue circle in the Kyan-kheng township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A hilly tract, with only a small area under rice. Pop. (1878), 3857, of whom 3586 are Burmese; gross revenue, £750.

Tshwa.—Revenue circle in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. The greater portion of this tract is broken up by offshoots from the Pegu Yoma Mountains, which lie to the west. Teak and other valuable timber-trees abound. Silk-worms are reared to a considerable extent. Pop. (1878), 2973; gross revenue, £282.

Tshwa.—River in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; rises in the Pegu Yoma Mountains, and after an easterly course of 60 miles falls into the TSIT-TOUNG, about 24 miles north of Toung-ngú town. In the rainy season, boats of from 30 to 35 feet in length can ascend as far as Ayo-doung, a village situated 38 miles from the mouth of the Tshwa. All along its course sandstone is found. The country which it drains produces teak and other valuable trees; and large quantities of timber are annually floated down for the Toung-ngú market, together with raw silk prepared by the inhabitants, who rear silk-worms extensively.

Tsí-beng.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1878), 8511, of whom 7710 are Burmese.

Tsín-khyún.—Revenue circle in Ramrí Island, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 24 square miles. Chief product—sugar, for the manufacture of which 126 mills were at work in 1875. Petroleum is found on the west, near the sea. Pop. (1878), 2569; land revenue, £345, and capitation tax, £278.

Tsit-peng.—Revenue circle in the Hmaw-bhí township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A fertile tract of rice land, situated on the left bank of the Pú-zwon-doung river. Pop. (1878), 4211; gross revenue, £3179.

Tsit-toung.—Township in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma, lying on both banks of the Tsit-toung river, the larger portion being on the east side. In the north-east the country is hilly, but in the south it is low and subject to inundation; in the west the land is extremely fertile. Chief towns—TSIT-TOUNG and WENG-BA-DAW.

Tsit-toung.—Revenue circle in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 240 square miles; pop. (1878), 6242; land revenue, £432, and capitation tax, £562. Valuable fisheries; manufacture of salt-boiling pots.

Tsit-toung.—Town in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 17° 26′ 5″ N., and long. 96° 57′ 30″ E., on the left bank of the Tsit-toung river, 50 miles by water below Shwe-gyeng town. Formerly the headquarters of both the Tsit-toung Division and township until a few years ago, when the station of the Assistant Commissioner was transferred to the more central town of KYAIK-HTO. To the north-east of Tsit-toung stretch wide plains; the court-house stands on the high ground east of the town. *Bázár* and police post; pop. (1878), 978. The town of Tsit-toung was founded about 582 A.D. by Tha-ma-la, the first king of Pegu.

Tsit-toung (*Sitang* or *Sittoung*).—River of the Tenasserim Division, British Burma; rises in the hills in Independent Burma, about 25 miles north-east of Re-me-theng, and about 130 above Toung-ngú town; flows southwards through the Districts of Toung-ngú and Shwe-gyeng, and falls

into the sea at the head of the Gulf of Martaban. The Tsit-toung is remarkable for its trumpet-shaped mouth, the velocity and dangerous nature of the tidal wave which sweeps up it, and the enormous quantity of silt suspended in its water. Between Toung-ngú and Htan-ta-beng, a village some 10 miles lower down, the Tsit-toung widens considerably, and is difficult of navigation, owing to its winding channel and numerous sandbanks. Below this it narrows, and the current is rapid, and from Mún southwards to Shwe-gyeng town navigation is almost impossible. South of Shwe-gyeng, where it receives from the east the united waters of the Shwe-gyeng and the Mút-ta-ma streams, the river gradually widens, and the current alone impedes the ascent of large boats. Soon after passing Tsit-toung town, it takes a large curve west and south, and then rapidly broadens till it falls into the sea. Following the crest of the bore is a heavy chopping sea of sand and water, as dangerous almost as the tidal wave itself. The tide is in the dry season felt even as high as Mún; but in the rains, owing to the greatly increased volume of water brought down, as far as Shwe-gyeng only. Boats rarely pass below Kha-ra-tsú at the mouth of the Paing-kywon or Kha-ra-tsú creek, which, until the new canal to Myit-kyo was opened, formed the highway of communication during the rains, and in the dry season for some fourteen days in each month before, at, and after springs, to the Pegu river and thence to Rangoon.

During the rains, communication with Maulmain—at this period entirely by boat—is kept up through the Weng-ba-daw creek, the entrance to which is about 7 miles below Tsit-toung town. Above Kha-ra-tsú are some extensive sandbanks covered by 6 or 7 feet of water at neap floods. Area drained by the Tsit-toung between the Pegu Yoma and the Poung-loung Mountains, about 22,000 square miles, of which about 7000 lie within British territory; total course as the crow flies, about 350 miles, of which the last 175 are through British Burma. On the west, the banks are uniformly low; but on the east, hills abut on the river in several places. Principal tributaries—on the west, the Tshwa, the Khyoung-tsouk, the Kha-boung, the Hpyú, and the Kwon; and on the east, the Khwe-thai, the Thit-nan-tha, the Kan-ní, the Thouk-re-gat, the Rouk-thwa-wa, the Kyouk-gyí, and the Shwe-gyeng and Mút-ta-ma, which unite at their mouths. By the inhabitants of the villages on either bank of the Tsit-toung, this stream is sometimes called the Poung-loung, and sometimes the Toung-ngú river.

Tsoung-khwet.—Revenue circle in the Ta-pwon township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Extends westwards from the Pegu Yomas, and is covered with forests of teak, *sha*, *eng*, and other valuable timber-trees. Pop. (1878), 3284; gross revenue, £380.

Tulamba.—Ancient town and ruins in Múltán (Mooltan) District,

Punjab; situated about 2 miles from the left bank of the modern bed of the river Rávi, 52 miles north-east of Múltán city. The modern village consists of brick houses, built from the débris of an ancient fortress, 1 mile south, said to have been abandoned on account of a change of course by the river about the year 1510. General Cunningham observes that the bricks resemble the oldest found in the ruins of Múltán, a fact which attests the great antiquity of the fortress. Mahmúd of Ghazní stormed the citadel, according to tradition; but Timúr, though he massacred the townspeople, left the stronghold untouched, lest the siege should delay his progress. The fortress originally covered a space 1000 feet square. The modern town contains a police station and branch post office.

Tularám-Senápati's Country.—Tract of country in North Cáchár and the Nágá Hills District, Assam, lying to the south of the Bárel Mountains and along the course of the Dhaneswarí river. Tularám Senápati was a chief who established his independence of the Cáchárí Rájá in the beginning of the present century, and whose territory lapsed to the British on his death without heirs in 1854.

Tulasi Dungári.—Hill range in Vizagapatam District, Madras, stretching into the State of Bastar. Lat. 18° 45′ N., long. 81° 30′ to 82° 40′ E. These hills, which separate the Rámgiri from the Málkagiri *zamíndárís*, have an average height of over 3000 feet above sea level; the highest peak (Tulasi) is 3928 feet.

Tulsípur.—*Parganá* in Gonda District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by the lower range of the Himálayas; on the east by the Arnála river, which separates it from Basti District in the North-Western Provinces; on the south by Balrámpur *parganá*; and on the west by Bahráich District. One of the largest *parganás* in Oudh, and presenting most varied natural features. All along the northern hills stretches the reserved Government forest, which is succeeded by a strip of undulating ground intersected by numerous hill torrents. The soil here is usually an excellent heavy loam, fertilized by leaf-mould washed down from the forests; but the climate of this tract is very unhealthy, the population scanty, and the cultivation of a poor character. The main part of the *parganá* is a bog, consisting of a level plain, considerably lower than the submontane strip. The soil is a stiff clay, yielding the finest crops of rice. The whole is laid under water during the rains, and the villages are built on the few spots which rise above ordinary flood level. Total area, 445 square miles, of which 283 are under cultivation, the principal crops being rice, wheat, barley, and pulses; population (1869), 90,680 Hindus and 13,774 Muhammadans; total, 104,454, residing in 337 villages. The most singular tribe in the *parganá* are the Thárus, whose flat faces, scanty beards, and high cheek-bones attest their Turanian origin, although they arrogate for themselves

a descent from the Rájputs of Chittor. They are a tribe of nomadic cultivators, who form the pioneers of civilisation. Regularly tilled fields are their aversion; and with the advance of regular castes, they retire farther northwards into the recesses of the forests. They are rapidly decreasing in number by emigration into Nepál, and now amount to barely 3000.

Till lately, the whole of the country between the Rápti and the hills was a vast *sál* forest, interspersed here and there with small colonies of Thárus, under their own rulers and peculiar laws, who preserved a semi-independence by paying a double tribute — the *dakhináha*—to the southern authorities, the Rájá of Balrámpur, or the Oudh Government; and the *uttarai* to the northern hill Rájás of Dang, who afterwards were better known as Rájás of Tulsípur. Under hereditary *chaudhris*, the original inhabitants had divided the *parganá* into the eight *tappas* of Bhambhár, Bijáipur, Pípra, Dhondi, Garáwan, Dond, Chaurahia, and Dári, separated from each other by as many hill streams, and defended against aggression by strong mud forts. The first of the family of hill Chauháns, who possessed an extensive Ráj in Nepál, comprising three lower valleys of the lower Himálayan ranges, was Megh Ráj, who, if the legend connected with his name is of any value, must have lived in the latter half of the 14th century. For many centuries his descendants ruled in the hills, receiving their tribute from the Thárus. About a hundred years ago, Rájá Prithwi Pál Sinh of Balrámpur died, and his rightful heir, Newal Sinh, was driven out by his cousin, the Bhayyá of Kalwári, and took refuge in the hills. The Chauhán Rájá placed at his disposal a force of 2000 Thárus, who expelled the usurper, and replaced Newal Sinh on the *gaddi* of Balrámpur. Not many years after this, the same hill Rájá was himself driven into the plains by the ruler of Nepál, and found refuge with his old ally, Rája Newal Sinh of Balrámpur, who requited his services by putting down the resistance of the Thárus of Tulsípur, and assuring the fugitive Chauhán in a chieftainship not inferior to the one he had just lost. In return for this, and in acknowledgment of some vague *zamíndári* claims, the Rájá of Tulsípur agreed to pay the Balrámpur Rájá an annual tribute of Rs. 1500. His son, Dalel Sinh, continued the payment; but when Dán Bahádur Sinh succeeded to the chieftainship, he asserted that it was due only as remuneration for military aid, which he could now dispense with, and declined to pay it any longer. In 1828, the Governor-General made a hunting expedition in the Tulsípur *tarái*; and in reward for the sport, induced the King of Oudh to give the Rájá a perpetual lease of the whole *parganá* at a fixed annual rent. After a long reign, remarkable rather for its material prosperity than its wars, Dán Bahádur Sinh died in 1845, not without suspicion of foul play at the hands of his son, Drigráj Sinh, who succeeded him in the

chieftainship. The crime, if committed, was more than avenged, and the reign of Drigráj Sinh was embittered and cut short by the rebellion of his son, Drig Náráyan Sinh, who in 1850 drove his father to seek refuge with the Rájá of Balrámpur. The dispossessed chieftain sought and obtained assistance at Lucknow, and supported by the Government engagement and a small body of Government troops, recovered his power for a few months in 1855. He was, however, unable permanently to resist his son, who defeated him and, after a short imprisonment, had him poisoned. At the British annexation of the Province, Drig Náráyan Sinh refused to pay his assessment, upon which he was arrested and sent under guard to Lucknow. In the meantime the Mutiny broke out, and the Rájá was shut up with the British force in the Residency, where he died from the hardships of the siege. His widow joined the rebels, and remained in arms during the whole of the Mutiny. She was at last driven over the Nepál frontier along with the shattered forces of Bála Ráo, the Rájá of Gonda, and other mutineers; and on her refusal to accept the amnesty offered by the Government, the estate of Tulsípur was confiscated, and conferred upon the Mahárájá of Balrámpur as a reward for his loyalty.

Tulsípur.—Town in Gonda District, Oudh, and headquarters of Tulsípur *parganá;* situated about 5 miles south of the line of forest. Founded about 200 years ago by a Kurmí, named Tulsí Das. Pop. (1869), 2292. No road communication, and no trade, except a petty traffic in grain, coarse cloth, and pots and pans. The remains of a large mud fort of the old Rájás of Tulsípur is situated to the south of the village.

Tuluva.—Ancient kingdom of Southern India, lying between the Western Gháts and the sea, and between the Kalyánapuri and Chandragiri rivers. Lat. 12° 27′ to 13° 15′ N., and long. 74° 45′ to 75° 30′ E., with a coast-line of about 80 miles. It now exists only as a linguistic division. The language called Tuluva or Tulu is spoken by about 300,000 inhabitants of the tract described above, the centre of which is MANGALORE. It is considered one of the six cultivated Dravidian languages, though it has no literature, and is written either in the Malayálam or the Kanarese character. The history of Tuluva is identical with that of SOUTH KANARA.

Tumbhadra (*Toombudra*).—River of Southern India.—*See* TUNGABHADRA.

Túmkúr.—A District forming the western portion of the Nandidrúg Division in Mysore. It lies between 12° 43′ and 14° 10′ N. lat., and between 76° 10′ and 77° 30′ E. long., being bounded on the north by Bellary District of the Madras Presidency. Estimated area, 3606 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1871, 632,239 souls. The administrative headquarters are at TUMKUR TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The greater portion of the District consists of elevated land, broken by river valleys, being part of the general plateau of Mysore. The height of this tract varies from 2200 to 2700 feet above sea level. Through the east of the District a range of hills run from north to south, rising to nearly 4000 feet, which constitutes an important watershed, dividing the river system of the Krishna from that of the Káveri (Cauvery). The chief rivers are the Jayamangala, which flows north-east into the North Pánkini, and the Shimsha, which rises in the same hill and turns south to join the Káveri. The majority of the rocks are of a gneissose formation, similar to those in the adjoining District of Bangalore. But westwards of Sira, stratified rocks make their appearance. These consist of a ferruginous slate clay, covered with a kind of magnetic ironstone. The mineral wealth of the District is considerable. Iron is obtained in large quantities from the hillsides, and also from the black sand brought down by certain streams. The hematite or limonite, found in the same localities, is used by the braziers for polishing their ware. Gold is washed to an insignificant amount in some of the hill streams. In the south-west is a celebrated quarry of amorphous hornblende, which furnishes excellent stone for building and statuary. Pot-stone, whetstone, and emery are also found and utilized. The greater portion of the country is plentifully dotted with trees, presenting a park-like appearance. Cocoa-nut palms are very common, and the sandal-wood occurs in some places. On the slopes of the Devaráy-durga Hills about 18 square miles have been reserved as a State forest. It is in this tract that large game are most numerous, including tigers, leopards, bears, and wild hog. The soil is generally hard and poor, requiring much labour and manure to render it productive. But in the north-east corner of the District there commences a peculiar tract, extending into the neighbouring *táluks* of the Madras Presidency, which is extremely fertile. The soil here is sandy, and can be readily irrigated from perennial springs that are always to be reached a few feet below the surface.

History.—Túmkúr District possesses no individual history, apart from that common to the rest of Mysore. Here as elsewhere are localized early legends, associated with the story of the *Rámáyana* and with mythical Hindu kings. The trustworthy evidence of inscriptions proves that during the early centuries of the Christian era this tract was included within the dominions of the Chalukya and Ballála dynasties, which followed one another in Southern India. As is the case in Mysore generally, the local chiefs or *pálegárs* do not trace their descent further back than the 14th century, when the distant rule of the Vijayanagar Emperor allowed small feudatory States to spring up throughout the country. Among these *pálegárs*, those of Holuvanhalli and Madgiri were the most prominent. Both of them were

offshoots of the widespread Gauda family, whose name constantly occurs over all the Nandidrúg Division; and they were both finally swept away by the organized sovereignty of Haidar Alí, which could tolerate no semi-independent subjects. But before the rise of Haidar Alí, toward the close of the 18th century, Túmkúr had been overrun by a succession of conquerors from the north. The Vijayanagar Empire was overthrown in 1564 by the allied Sultans of the Deccan; and about seventy years afterwards, a Bijápur army under the Marhattá Sháhjí, father of Sivají the Great, occupied this part of the country, which was then called after the town of Sira, and included in Karnatic Bijápur. After the capture of Bijápur by Aurangzeb in 1687, Sira became the capital of a new Province, and grew into great importance as the frontier station of the Mughals towards the south, and the residence of the Subahdár of the Karnatic. In 1757, Sira was taken by the Marhattás, and finally fell into the hands of Haidar Alí in 1761. Its wealth and population have since steadily declined. In the time of Haidar Alí and his son Tipú, the seat of administration was fixed at Madgiri. Túmkúr town is a comparatively recent creation of British rule. After the death of Tipú in 1799, the District was comprised in the Madgiri *táluk;* and it was not till after the assumption by the British of the administration of Mysore in 1832 that the District received its present name and limits.

Population.—A *khána-sumári* or house enumeration of the people in 1853-54 returned a total of 396,420 souls. The regular Census of 1871 ascertained the actual number to be 632,239, showing an increase of more than 59 per cent. in the interval of eighteen years, if the earlier estimate can be trusted. The area of the District is approximately estimated at 3606 square miles, which yields an average density of 173·3 persons per square mile—a density rising to 262 in the *táluk* of Haliyúrdurga. Classified according to sex, there are 315,440 males and 316,799 females; proportion of males, 49·09 per cent. There are, under 12 years of age, 115,632 boys and 113,083 girls; total children, 228,715, or 36 per cent. of the District population. The occupation tables are scarcely trustworthy, but it may be mentioned that 136,606 persons are returned as connected with agriculture, and 29,304 with manufacture and arts. The religious division of the people shows—Hindus, 609,491, or 96·40 per cent.; Muhammadans, 20,535, or 3·25 per cent.; Jains, 1504, or 0·24 per cent.; Christians, 709, or 0·11 per cent. The Hindus are further subdivided, according to the two great sects, into 374,376 worshippers of Vishnu and 235,115 worshippers of Siva. The Bráhmans number 16,711, of whom the great majority belong to the Smarta sect; the claimants to the rank of Kshattriyahood, 5533, including 3152 Marhattás; the Vaisyas, 4345, of whom 4077 are Komatis. Of inferior castes, by far the most numerous is the Wokliga (191,165),

who are agricultural labourers; next come the Golla or dairymen (49,416), the Bedar or hunters (48,087), and the Kuruba or shepherds (42,757). The Lingáyats, who have always been influential in this part of the country, are represented by 32,109 members, chiefly living in the market towns. Out-castes are returned at 81,662; wandering tribes at 4593; and wild tribes at 105. The Musalmáns, who muster thickest in the *táluks* of Kunigal and Túmkúr, are chiefly returned as Dakhni Musalmáns, being apparently the descendants of the Bijápur and Mughal invaders. Out of the total of 527 Christians, 48 are Europeans and 67 Eurasians, leaving 412 for native converts. According to another principle of classification, there are 325 Protestants and 202 Roman Catholics. The Wesleyan Society has a European missionary stationed at Túmkúr town, with a chapel and several schools.

The District contains 2481 primary (*asali*) populated towns and villages, with 999 houses of the better class, or over £50 in value, and 123,864 houses of the inferior sort. As compared with the area and the population, these figures yield the following averages:—Villages per square mile, 69; houses per square mile, 35; persons per village, 255; persons per house, 5·06. TUMKUR TOWN, with a population of 11,170 souls, is the only place in the District with more than 5000 inhabitants. There are altogether 11 municipalities in the District, with an aggregate municipal revenue in 1874-75 amounting to £562. The most important places, after Túmkúr town, are—SIRA, the old Muhammadan capital, which is reported to have once contained 50,000 houses; MADGIRI, the seat of administration under Haidar Alí, which still retains considerable trade and manufactures; KUNIGAL, possessing an establishment for the breeding of horses for the Mysore *siladárs;* and CHIKNAYAKANHALLI and GUBBI, the chief centres of local trade.

Agriculture.—The cultivated products of Túmkúr are substantially the same as those in the neighbouring District of Bangalore, except that less mulberry is grown, and areca and cocoa nut palms are more abundant. The only fertile tract is the *táluk* of Madgiri, in the north-east, where the sandy soil is easily irrigated from perennial springs, and the best rice is produced in the whole of Mysore. The staple food of the people is *rági* (Cynosurus corocanus), and various sorts of millet, which all belong to the category of 'dry crops.' The 'wet crops' are rice, sugar-cane, and wheat. Various pulses, oil-seeds, and vegetables are largely grown, and the supply of cocoa-nuts leaves a large surplus available for export. The following agricultural statistics are merely approximate:—Area under rice, 42,256 acres; wheat, 17; other food grains, 545,567; oil-seeds, 13,056; cocoa-nut and areca-nut, 19,000; vegetables, 8096; tobacco, 2754; mulberry,

2073; cotton, 1037; sugar-cane, 386; fibres, 15 acres. The agricultural stock of the District consists of 5600 carts and 88,804 ploughs. Irrigation is largely practised, both from artificial tanks and from the perennial springs which are found just beneath the sandy soil in the north-east corner of the District. The total number of tanks is 2081, of which the largest, when full, is as much as 14 miles in circumference. Several have a depth of 30 feet. Manure is used to the extent of the annual collection of refuse from the house and cattle-yard of each cultivator. Where municipalities have been established, town refuse is freely bought for the same purpose. This, with ashes and silt, is applied to 'dry' lands, while vegetable manure and sheep droppings are reserved for 'wet' lands, which depend mainly upon irrigation. The cattle generally are of a poor character, but there are special breeds in the Madgiri *táluk* and certain other localities. Buffaloes are commonly kept both for ploughing and for the dairy. Sheep are numerous, and a good breed is to be seen round Chiknáyakanhalli. The total live stock of the District is thus returned:—Cows and bullocks, 292,000; horses, 734; ponies, 4270; donkeys, 5050; sheep and goats, 353,385; swine, 7159.

Manufactures, etc.—The principal articles of manufacture are coarse cotton cloths; woollen blankets or *kamblis*, both plain and black-and-white check, of which the best are woven at Chiknáyakanhalli; rope made from cotton thread, from the fibre of the cocoa-nut and wild aloe, and from hemp and *munj* grass; and also strong tape. Among miscellaneous productions may be mentioned domestic utensils of pottery or brass-ware, furniture, agricultural implements and tools, iron and steel weapons, gold and silver ornaments, glass bangles, toys, and sealing-wax. The once thriving industry of chintz-weaving at Sira and Midigesi has been destroyed by the importation of cheap piece-goods from Manchester. The production of raw silk, which is chiefly in the hands of Muhammadans, has decayed in recent years owing to the continued mortality among the silk-worms. The returns show a total of 120 forges for the manufacture of iron and steel, 583 earth-salt pans, 5618 weaving-looms, 444 oil-mills, and 34,801 spinning-wheels.

The trade of the District is chiefly in the hands of Lingáyat merchants, whose emporium is at Gubbi. There are three weekly markets, with an attendance ranging from 1000 to 10,000; and seven annual religious gatherings, at which much petty traffic takes place. The fair at Gubbi is frequented by traders from great distances, as it is an intermediate mart for all sorts of goods passing through the peninsula in every direction. It has been computed that 335 tons of areca-nuts are annually sold here to the value of £21,840, 134 tons of *copri* or dried cocoa-nut to the value of £3328, and £1500 of native-made

cotton cloth. The chief exports from the District are *rágí*, paddy or unhusked rice, dried cocoa-nuts, areca-nuts, earth salt, pulses, and vegetables. The imports received in exchange include European piece-goods, rice, spices, cotton, vegetables, dyes, and tobacco. The larger portion, however, of the District trade is of a through character, consisting of an interchange between the east and west coasts, and especially between the towns of Bangalore and Bellary.

There are no railways in the District. The length of imperial roads is 156 miles, maintained at an annual cost of £3123, of which nearly half is appropriated to the main road from Bellary through Túmkúr town to Bangalore; the length of District roads is 328 miles, costing £1667.

Administration.—In 1873-74, the total revenue of Túmkúr District, excluding forests, education, and public works, amounted to £117,854. The chief items were—land revenue, £91,329; *ábkárí* or excise, £7665; *sáyar* or customs, £7404; *mohatarfa* or assessed taxes, £5874. The District is divided into 8 *táluks* or fiscal divisions, with 57 *hoblis* or minor fiscal units. In 1870-71, the number of separate estates was 446, owned by 5400 registered proprietors or coparceners. During 1874, the average daily prison population of the District jail was 61·57, and of the *táluk* lock-ups, 19·02; total, 80·59, of whom 6·32 were women, showing 1 person in jail to every 7653 of the population. In the same year, the District police force numbered 60 officers and 430 men, maintained at a total cost of £3028. These figures show 1 policeman to every 7 square miles of area or to every 1299 persons of the population, the cost being 17s. 10d. per square mile and 1d. per head of population. The number of schools aided and inspected by Government in 1874 was 335, attended by 6221 pupils, being 1 school to every 10·76 square miles and 9·8 pupils to every thousand of the population. In addition, there were 102 unaided schools, attended by 1494 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Túmkúr generally has the reputation of being equable and healthy, agreeing alike with natives and Europeans. In the south and south-west, it closely resembles that of the adjoining District of Bangalore, the heat being moderated by the high elevation and the abundant forests. Proceeding north from Sira, the temperature rises towards that attained on the lower level of Bellary. It has been observed that the eastern slope of every hill range is perceptibly warmer than the western. During the two years 1873-74, the highest temperature registered at Túmkúr town was 88° F. in the month of April, the lowest 68° in January. The hot season lasts from the middle of February to the middle of May. The annual rainfall, calculated on an average of thirty-eight years, amounts to 32·7 inches, of which the greater part falls in the two months of September

and October. In some parts, especially in the neighbourhood of Kunigal, malarious fever prevails, of a very persistent type; but on the whole, the fevers of the District are mild and amenable to treatment. The vital statistics are far from trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that in 1872, out of a total number of 6306 deaths, 3577 were assigned to fevers, 480 to small-pox, and 452 to bowel complaints. A charitable dispensary is subsidized by the Government at Túmkúr town, at which 4617 out-patients were treated in 1874.

Túmkúr.—*Táluk* in the centre of the District of the same name, Mysore. Area, 394 square miles, of which 231 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 101,981, of whom 96,249 were Hindus, 5073 Muhammadans, 319 Jains, and 340 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £14,488, or 2s. 2d. per cultivated acre. Crops—rice, cocoa-nut and areca-nut; the irrigation is from tanks and from *kapile* or sub-surface wells.

Túmkúr (said to be derived from '*tumuku*,' a small drum).—Chief town of Túmkúr District, and headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 20′ 20″ N., and long. 77° 8′ 50″ E., at the south-western base of the Devaráy-durga Hills, 43 miles north-west of Bangalore. Pop. (1871), 11,170, composed of 8583 Hindus, 2186 Muhammadans, 65 Jains, and 336 Christians; municipal revenue (1874-75), £90; rate of taxation, 2d. per head. Said to have been founded by a prince of the Mysore family, who built a fort, now levelled. The town is prettily situated, and surrounded with gardens of plantains, areca-nut and cocoa-nut palms, and betel vines. Some of the streets are wide. The native houses are mostly mud-built, of one storey, and tiled. The European quarter lies to the north. The court-house of the Deputy Commissioner is a conspicuous circular structure of three storeys. The other public buildings include the usual offices for Assistant Commissioners, executive engineer, and *ámildár*; a District school, barracks for the *bárr* or infantry, and *silidár* or cavalry force of Mysore State; a jail, dispensary, and travellers' bungalow. Túmkúr is also the residence of a European missionary of the Wesleyan Society, who have here a chapel and several schools. A weekly fair held on Mondays is attended by 3000 persons.

Tumsar.—Town in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 15′ N., and long. 80° 19′ E., 20 miles north-east of Bhandára town, on a small affluent of the Waingangá. Pop. (1872), 7367. Tumsar is the depôt where the grain from Chhatísgarh is stored, previous to its export towards the west. The only manufacture is of coarse cotton cloth. The town stands on red gravel, and is thought healthy. The well water is mostly brackish, but numerous wells outside yield excellent water; and a large reservoir on the north-west, lately constructed by a liberal inhabitant, meets the extra requirements caused by

the watering of large herds of cattle during the grain season. Tumsar has a flourishing Government school, a handsome corn exchange, a commodious *sarái* (native inn), and a police outpost. It is surrounded by fine mango groves; and during the grain season is a busy place.

Tuna.—Port in Cutch (Kachchh) State, Bombay. Lat. 23° 2′ 30″ N., long. 70° 10′ E.

Tundlá (*Toondla*).—Town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces, and a station on the East Indian Railway main line; distant from Calcutta (Howrah station) 827 miles, from Agra city (for which it is the junction station) 14 miles. Lat. 27° 12′ 50″ N., long. 78° 17′ 50″ E. Telegraph office.

Tunga. — River in Mysore, which unites with its twin stream the Bhadra to form the Tungabhadra. It rises beneath the peak of Gangamula in the Western Gháts, not far from the source of the Bhadra, in Kádúr District; and after flowing in a northerly direction through that District, enters the District of Shimoga and joins the Bhadra, in lat. 14° N., and long. 75° 43′ E., near the village of Kudali. The principal place it passes is SHIMOGA TOWN. As compared with the Bhadra, its current is rapid, and its banks less shut in by dense and unhealthy forest. At Mandagadde it branches for a short distance into seven streams, which do not permit the downward passage of rafts of bamboos and timber during the dry season. In Kádúr District, it is crossed by about twenty dams for irrigation purposes, which supply 303 acres and yield a revenue of £130. A project was formed a few years ago by the Madras Irrigation Company for damming the entire stream, either at Tirtahalli or Mallúr in Shimoga District, and thus constructing an immense reservoir. All the requisite surveys were made, but nothing has yet been done. According to a Puránic legend, the Tunga was formed by the left tusk of the boar *avatár* of Vishnu.

Tungabhadra (*Toomboodra*).—River of Southern India, formed by the junction of the two rivers TUNGA and BHADRA. Both rise near the south-west frontier of Mysore, on the eastern slopes of the high range of hills which border on South Kánara. Their junction takes place in lat. 14° N., and long. 75° 43′ E., in Mysore, in front of the Bráhman village of Kudali in Shimoga District. Though running low during the hot-weather months, the united stream forms, from June to October,—the season of the south-west monsoon,—a river over half a mile in breadth, and deep enough to bear floats of timber from the western forests into the open country to the east. Its water is to a considerable extent used for irrigation. About 300 years ago, the Vijayanagar kings built seven gigantic dams, *bandars* or anicuts, across the Tungabhadra to the east and west of Anegundi, their capital. From these dams irrigation canals are led along both sides of the river. The chief

tributaries of the Tungabhadra on the left bank are the Kumadwati and the Wardhá, both of which rise in the north of Mysore, and traverse the southern portions of Dhárwár District; and on the right bank, the Haggari (in Bellary) and Hindri (in Karnúl). From the point of junction of the Tunga and Bhadra, the united stream, flowing north and north-east, forms the northern boundary of Bellary District and of the Madras Presidency, and, entering Karnúl (Kurnool) District, joins the Kistna river 16 miles north-east of the town of Karnúl, in lat. 15° 58′ N., and long. 78° 17′ 20″ E. The total length of the Tungabhadra is about 400 miles. The maximum flood discharge at Harihar is calculated at 207,000 cubic feet of water per second; the ordinary discharge at 30,000 cubic feet. The waters of the Madras Irrigation Company take off from the Tungabhadra river. The only navigation is by means of basket boats. The channel being rocky, navigation is impossible in the dry season. The chief towns on the banks of the river are Harihar in Mysore, Kampli in Bellary, and Karnúl. At Harihar it is crossed by a fine bridge of stone and brick, constructed in 1868 at a cost of £35,000. The Madras Railway crosses it at Rámpur, in Bellary, by a bridge built on 52 piers. The river abounds in crocodiles.

Turá.—Principal mountain range in the Gáro Hills, Assam, running east and west through the entire length of the District. The highest peak is 4652 feet. The sides are steep, and for the most part clothed with dense forest. From the summit a magnificent view is obtained over the broad valley of Northern Bengal, reaching as far as the snowy peaks of the Himálayas behind Dárjíling.

Turá.—Principal village and administrative headquarters of the Gáro Hills District, Assam; situated in lat. 25° 29′ 30″ N., and long. 90° 16′ 10″ E., on a spur of the mountain range of the same name, 1323 feet above sea level and about 40 miles west of Maniker Char on the Brahmaputra. Population (1878), 865 souls. Turá was fixed upon as the civil station when the Gáro Hills were erected into an independent District in 1868. The site is salubrious, facing the west, and exposed to a constant breeze blowing up the valley. It is also suitable for defence against a sudden attack. An excellent water supply has been introduced by means of a petty aqueduct. The houses are all built of wooden posts, bamboos, and thatch; and the whole was originally surrounded by a stockade. The public buildings include a barrack for 150 constables, a large bungalow for the Deputy Commissioner, and a school-house, maintained by the American Baptist Mission. The average rainfall is about 127 inches in the year; the thermometer ranges from 90° to 51° F.

Turaiyúr.—Town in Trichinopoli District, Madras. Lat. 11° 9′ 10″ N., long. 78° 38′ 15″ E.; pop. (1871), 6308, inhabiting 1208 houses.

Turaiyúr was formerly a *tahsíli* station; at present it has a sub-magistrate's court. There is a large tank with a curious half-ruined three-storied building in its centre, formerly an occasional residence of the *zamíndár*, who represents the ancient *pálegár* (*pálaiyakáran*) of the place.

Turavánúr.—Town in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore. Lat. 14° 24′ N., long. 76° 30′ E.; pop. (1871), 5072. *Kamblis* or country blankets and coarse cotton cloths are woven, and there is a special industry of dyeing in red.

Turmápurí.—Estate in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; 5 miles north of Sákolí, comprising 7 villages. Area, 8590 acres, one-eighth of which is cultivated; population chiefly Gonds and Goárás, but the chief is a Kunbí. The forests contain much large timber of the unreserved kinds.

Turmbhen.—Town in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay.—*See* TROMBAY.

Turuvekere (*Turvekere*).—Town in Túmkúr District, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 10′ 10″ N., and long. 76° 42′ 10″ E., 44 miles south-west of Túmkúr town on the Tiptúr-Mayasandra road. Pop. (1871), 2640, of whom 2486 are Hindus. The town was till 1873 head-quarters of a *táluk* of the same name. Its ancient name is said to have been Narasinhapura.

Tuticorin (*Túttukudi*).—Municipal town and seaport in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 8° 48′ 3″ N., long. 78° 11′ 27″ E.; pop. (1871), 10,546, inhabiting 2136 houses. Headquarters of the Sub-Collector of the District. The appearance of the place and of its neighbourhood is very unattractive. In parts, the subsoil is so thin that no trees or plants will grow, and elsewhere there is nothing but heavy sand with palmyra-palms and a few bushes. During the south-west monsoon, the dust is intolerable. Although the annual rainfall is scanty, a heavy shower causes much inconvenience from want of drainage. Tuticorin seems to have been formerly a more important place than now. In 1700, the Jesuits spoke of it as having 50,000 inhabitants. From the Portuguese it passed to the Dutch in the 17th century, and was lost by them, with Negapatam and other possessions, when war broke out with the English in 1781. Of the inhabitants, 40 per cent. are Catholics (Paravars), whose conversion in the 16th century has been described under TINNEVELLI DISTRICT. Tuticorin is their chief town and residence of their head-man. There are several Catholic churches, a convent of European nuns, and 4 priests. In the value of its foreign trade, Tuticorin stands second in the Madras Presidency, and sixth in all India. Trade has much increased since the opening, in 1875, of the South Indian Railway, of which Tuticorin is a terminus. In 1875, 912 vessels called at Tuti-

corin. The value of the imports was £405,000, and of the exports, £890,000. The chief exports are cotton, coffee, jaggery, chillies, etc. Much grain, as well as cattle, horses, sheep, and poultry, are sent to Ceylon, with which there is also a considerable passenger traffic. The harbour is well sheltered, but only 8 feet deep; ships have to anchor 2½ miles from the shore, and the cargo is brought out in boats carrying 20 tons. The lighthouse on Hare Island was built in 1874. The pearl and *shank* (conch shell) fisheries have been noticed under TINNEVELLI DISTRICT. The portmaster is superintendent of pearl-fisheries. There are several European merchants and steam cotton-presses at Tuticorin. In 1877-78, the municipal income was £1588, of which £1136 (2s. 2d. a head) came from taxation. The municipal hospital in 1877 treated 1019 in-patients and 5972 out-patients. The water supply is derived from the Támbraparni river, being brought from a reservoir 4 miles distant in open channels and masonry conduits, and stored in dipping-wells and tanks. It gets polluted on the way, and the supply sometimes fails. The local wells are all salt.

Twan-te.—Revenue circle in the An-gyí township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. To the east lies an extensive plain, but little cultivated; in the west, the ground is undulating and thickly wooded. Manufacture of pots. Pop. (1879), 5777; gross revenue, £1879.

Twan-te.—Town and headquarters of the An-gyí township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 16° 41′ 30″ N., and long. 96° 0′ 30″ E., at the northern extremity of the Twan-te Taw-gyí, or 'great jungle,' on the banks of the Twan-te river, about 7 miles from its mouth in the To or China Bakir. A few years ago, the Dala creek formed a highway of communication between Twan-te and Rangoon, but this channel has now completely silted up. Twan-te occupies the site of an old Talaing town, the walls of which can still be traced, and the ruins of a palace are pointed out by the inhabitants. In its immediate neighbourhood is the SHWE TSHAN-DAW pagoda, an object of greater veneration among the Talaings than is the SHWE DAGON at Rangoon to the Burmese. Close to Twan-te is a grove of seven *thwot-ta-bhat* (Achras sapota) trees, the fruit of which was much valued by the Talaing monarchs. Although the high land behind the town is fertile and admirably adapted for cultivation, very little use was made of it till after British annexation (1852). Since then, a large colony of Shans has settled in Shan-tsu, about a mile south of Twan-te, and have made extensive clearings. Twan-te is celebrated for its large earthenware jars, which supply the Rangoon market, and, indeed, the greater portion of the Irawadi delta. Local traffic in rice, betel-leaf, sugarcane, dried fish, *nga-pí* or fish paste, bamboos, and coarse reed-mats. Pop. (1879), 1870.

Twenty-four Pargánas, The.—The metropolitan District of the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 21° 55′ 20″ and 22° 57′ 32″ N. lat., and between 88° 6′ 45″ and 88° 20′ 51″ E. long. It forms the south-western District of the Presidency Division; and is bounded on the north by Nadiyá, on the north-east by Jessor, on the south and south-east by the Sundarbans, and on the west by the river Húglí. Area, in 1871, 2536 square miles, exclusive of the Sundarbans, but inclusive of Calcutta, which, with its suburbs, has an area of 23·17 square miles. Population, in 1872, 1,951,137, exclusive of the town and suburbs of Calcutta; or inclusive of that city, 2,639,582 souls. The administrative headquarters of the District are at ALIPUR, a southern suburb of Calcutta.

Physical Aspects.—The Twenty-four Parganás form the western extremity of the Gangetic delta. They stretch out in a vast alluvial plain, hemmed in by great rivers on the right and left, with the sea in front, and countless intersecting channels. The level slopes imperceptibly upwards from the coast-line, which is below high-water mark, being protected from the sea only by natural sandhills. The northern or inland part of the District consists of fairly raised deltaic land of old formation; the southern or seaboard division lies just above the tidal wave, and exhibits a network of swamps and rivers, which creep through dense, uninhabited jungle into the sea. This seaboard division, the SUNDARBANS, is administered by a special revenue officer. It discloses the process of land-making in an unfinished state, and presents the last stage in the life of a great river. In the Twenty-four Parganás, as in other deltaic Districts, the river banks silt up till they form the highest levels, from which the ground gradually slopes downward into a depressed tract, lying midway between each set of two rivers. The depressed portions form natural basins, devoid of an exit for their water; and hence the numerous swamps (*bils*) between the larger rivers, especially in the eastern part of the District. The western portion, in the neighbourhood of the Salt Water Lake near Calcutta, is intersected by innumerable water-courses (*khāls*), which at spring-tides flood the surrounding fields except where embanked by the cultivators for the protection of their crops. In the north of the District, the soil is very rich; the north-eastern portion, in particular, is well raised and studded with beautiful palm groves. Every village lies within its own fringe of plantation and garden ground. With the exception of three tracts of jungle in the southern division of the District, but little waste land exists in the Twenty-four Parganás north of the Sundarbans, and even such patches are utilized for thatching grass.

The river system of the Twenty-four Parganás is derived from the Ganges and its distributaries. Each river forms the centre of a minor system of interlacing distributaries of its own. Many of them change their

names at different parts of their course, re-enter their parent channels, and then break away again, or temporarily combine with other rivers until they reach their final stage as estuaries, as they near the sea. The seven principal rivers are the HUGLI, BIDYADHARI, PIALI, KALINDI, JAMUNA or Ichhámatí, KHOLPETUA, and KABADAK, all navigable by the largest native boats throughout the year; besides the great estuaries in the Sundarbans. Canals or artificial waterways form a feature of the Twenty-four Parganás. They number 21, of which 18 have an aggregate length of 127 miles. One of the most important, TOLLY'S NALA, connects the Húglí about a mile south of Calcutta with the Bidyádhári, 10 miles distant. It was excavated by Major Tolly in 1782 as a private venture, but subsequently passed to Government, and it now forms a considerable source of revenue. The principal boat routes eastward through the Twenty-four Parganás consist of the 'Outer Sundarbans Passage,' *viâ* Port Canning, for heavily laden craft; and the 'Inner Sundarbans Passage,' *viâ* Husáinábád and the Ichhámatí, for smaller boats. The extension of cultivation has of late years driven away, and in many parts exterminated, the game in this District, once famous for its sport. A stray tiger from the Sundarbans is still to be met with, leopards are more numerous, with several varieties of deer; and an excellent bag of snipe, wild duck, teal, with an occasional jungle fowl, may generally be relied on.

History.—The Twenty-four Parganás form part of the Mughal *sarkár* of Sátgáon, 'the seven villages.' SATGAON, once the chief port of Bengal, is now a petty cluster of huts on the west bank of the Húglí, just below Tribeni, in HUGLI DISTRICT. A long, depressed line in the Twenty-four Parganás, marked by pools and tanks, is still held sacred as the original stream of the Ganges. It branches south-east from the present channel of the Húglí, a little below Calcutta, with the famous shrine of Kálíghát on its bank. A legend relates how the sixty thousand sons of Ságar, King of Oudh, having traced the sacred steed of their father's hundredth horse-sacrifice to the cell of Kapilmuni, accused him of the theft, and were cursed by him and burnt up. A grandson obtained the promise of their salvation, if Gangá in heaven would come down to earth in the shape of water and touch the ashes. Gangá, the aqueous form of Vishnu and Lakshmi, in due time descended in answer to the prayers of Bhágirath, the great-grandson of Ságar miraculously born of a widow. Bhágirath led the divine stream as far as Háthiágarh, in the Twenty-four Parganás. Here he declared that he could show the way no farther. Whereupon Gangá, to make sure of reaching the spot, divided herself into a hundred streams, forming the delta. One of these streams reached the cell, bathed the ashes, and thus atoning for the offence of the dead against the holy sage, procured admittance for their souls to heaven. In this way, Gangá became the sacred river of the hundred

mouths. The great island, Ságar, on the seaboard, commemorates the name of the mythical King of Oudh, the ancestor of Ráma; and thousands of pilgrims from the most distant parts of India still repair every year to its shores at the great Bathing Festival, to wash away their sins.

The old maps of De Barros (1540 A.D.) and Van den Broucke (1660) show that the Twenty-four Parganás long continued a semi-aqueous region, and the District makes no appearance in the Mughal history of Bengal. The English obtained it from the Muhammadans by the treaty of the 20th December 1757, by which the Nawáb Názím of Bengal, Mír Jafar, ceded it to the East India Company. The District was then known as 'the *zamíndárí* of Calcutta,' or 'the Twenty-four *Parganás zamíndárí*,' and embraced an area of 883 square miles. The rights at first ceded to the Company were those of an ordinary landholder, but they were strengthened and added to subsequently. In 1759, a *jágír sanad*, making over full proprietary rights in the land, was granted by the Emperor to Lord Clive personally, with reversion on his death (1774) to the East India Company in perpetuity. Our possession of the port and city of CALCUTTA dates from half a century earlier, and was acquired in a different manner. The authority of the District officers of the Twenty-four Parganás does not extend to Calcutta city; and the civil, criminal, and revenue jurisdiction have changed from time to time, owing to transfers of estates to and from the neighbouring Districts of Nadiyá, Jessor, and Húglí. From 1834, after the transfer of large areas from Nadiyá and Jessor, the District was for a considerable time divided into two great parts; the Alipur Division, or territory originally ceded to the Company, and the Bárásat Joint Magistracy, comprising the lands from Nadiyá, etc. In April 1861, another redistribution took place, by which the joint magistracy of Bárásat was abolished, and the District was parcelled out into the following eight Subdivisions, each under the charge of a separate officer, viz.—(1) DIAMOND HARBOUR, (2) BARUIPUR, (3) ALIPUR, (4) DUM-DUM, (5) BARRACKPUR, (6) BARASAT, (7) BASURHAT, and (8) SATKHIRA. A Collector-Magistrate presides over the whole. This arrangement continues to the present day; but the boundaries of the District and Subdivisions were again modified in 1861 and in 1863, all villages lying to the west of the Húglí being excluded from the District, and the Sundarbans with the sea-coast included.

Population.—Several attempts have been made to arrive at an enumeration of the people. In 1822, the population of the Twenty-four Parganás, as then constituted, was estimated to number 599,595 souls, exclusive of the town and suburbs of Calcutta. At the time of the Revenue Survey (1846-51), the area of the District was returned at 2246 square miles, and the population (also exclusive of Calcutta) at

947,204, showing a density of 421 persons per square mile. Admitting both these estimates to be below the truth, even at the dates to which they refer, there can be no doubt that the population has enormously increased of late years. The first regular Census was taken throughout the Twenty-four Parganás simultaneously on the night of the 25th January 1872. For the purposes of the Census, the area of the District (exclusive of Calcutta and suburbs, but including part of the Sundarbans) was taken at 2765 square miles, and the results of the enumeration disclosed a total population of 1,951,137 persons, residing in 4979 villages or townships and in 349,282 houses; density of the population, 707 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·80; houses per square mile, 136; persons per village, 393; persons per house, 5·6. Classified according to sex, there are 1,003,030 males and 948,107 females; proportion of males, 51·4 per cent.; the preponderance of males is due to the fact that many persons come from remote Districts in search of employment, leaving their wives and families behind them. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—males, 349,757, and females, 281,329; total children, 631,086, or 32·34 per cent. of the population: above 12 years—males, 653,273, and females, 666,778; total adults, 1,320,851, or 67·66 per cent. The excessive proportion of male above female children is due to the fact that here, as elsewhere throughout India, natives consider that girls attain womanhood at an earlier age than boys reach manhood, and many girls are thus returned as women. Ethnical division—Non-Asiatics (chiefly British), 2048; mixed races, 276; non-Indian Asiatics, 66; aboriginal tribes, 3325; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 251,456; Hindu castes and people of Hindu origin, 907,824; Muhammadans, 786,129; and Burmese, 8. The aboriginal hill tribes are poorly represented, the most numerous being Uráons from Chutiá Nágpur, who number 1738. Among the low-castes or Hinduized aborigines, the most numerous are Bágdís, principally labourers, 78,827; Chámárs, or shoemakers and leather dealers, 53,516; Kaorás, principally cultivators and swineherds, 49,862; and Chandáls, cultivators, 42,255. Among the higher castes of Hindus, the most important are Bráhmans, 72,213; Káyasths, writers and clerks, 35,867; Kaibarttas, cultivators and fishermen, 147,665; and Pods, boatmen and fishermen (the most numerous caste in the District), 246,063. The Hindus, as grouped together on the basis of religion, number 1,154,311, or 59·16 per cent. of the population, including all castes and classes who profess any form of Hinduism. The faith of Islám is professed by 786,134 persons, or 40·29 per cent. The Christian community numbers 9771, of whom 7431 are native converts. Buddhism is represented by 7 Chinese and 8 Burmese. All the foregoing figures are exclusive of the city and immediate suburbs of

Calcutta, and also of the lower Sundarbans. Seventeen municipalities, not counting Calcutta and the 'Municipality of the Suburbs,' contain a population of upwards of 5000 souls, viz.—(1) South Suburban town of Calcutta, 62,632; (2) North Suburban town, 27,263; (3) AGARPARA, 26,801; (4) NAIHATI, 23,730; (5) NAWABGANJ, 16,525; (6) KALINGA, 15,687; (7) BASURHAT, 12,105; (8) BARASAT, 11,822; (9) BAGHJALA, 9718; (10) BARRACKPUR STATION and CANTONMENT, 9591; (11) SATKHIRA, 8979; (12) JAINAGAR, 7772; (13) GOBARDANGA, 6952; (14) KALAROA, 5937; (15) KADIHATI, 5680; (16) TAKI, 5261; and (17) DUM-DUM STATION and CANTONMENT, 5179. These seventeen municipalities or village unions have an aggregate population of 261,634, leaving 1,689,503 for the strictly rural population. Other villages, although now containing but few inhabitants, are of importance from a historical or antiquarian point of view. The principal of these are Kálíghát, a little south of Calcutta, on the old bed of the Ganges; PORT CANNING or Matlá, on the river of the latter name; Paltá, on the Húglí, whence the Calcutta water supply starts; Narikelbáriá, in the north-east of the District, noted as the spot where the Wahábí rebel fanatics came into conflict with the British troops, in November 1831; and Iswarípur, bordering on the Sundarbans, said to have been the seat of Rájá Pratápadityá.

Village Heads.—This is one of the few Districts of Bengal in which an inquiry was made at the time of the Census of 1871 with regard to the indigenous mechanism of the village. Near the towns, the influence of the courts of law has practically supplanted the customary functions of the village communities and their head-men. In the more sequestered parts, the internal direction of the village still rests with a few influential men, the village heads, who hold their office by a combination of hereditary right with popular selection. They decide disputes on boundary matters, caste questions, family dissensions, and petty differences between the villagers. Such matters comparatively seldom find their way into our courts. The succession to the office of head-man usually goes to the eldest son, but sometimes to a brother of the deceased *mandal;* and a younger son who can read and write would be preferred to an elder one who could not. Out of 985 village heads, it was found that 913 had succeeded their fathers; in the case of 861, the office had also been held by the grandfather. In one instance, the *mandal* or village head was only nine years old; but this was felt to be an anomaly. Very few of the village heads belong to high castes. In this respect, as in others, they fairly represent the surrounding population. Of the 5818 village heads of the Twenty-four Parganás (exclusive of Bárásat *thánú*), only 9 were Bráhmans, 6 Rájputs, and 4 Káyasths. Súdras and low-caste Hindus furnished 3524, ranging from the respectable blacksmiths to the despised leather dealers;

Musalmáns, 2262; and native Christians, 13. Some large villages have 3 or 4 *mandals* of different castes.

Agriculture.—Rice forms the staple crop of the District. It consists of two sorts, the *áus* or autumn rice, and the *áman* or winter rice which yields the great December harvest. These are subdivided into 129 well recognised, and many minor varieties. After the *áus* rice is reaped in August and September, a cold-weather crop of pulses or oil-seeds is grown in the same field. In the neighbourhood of the city, large quantities of vegetables and fruits are raised for the Calcutta market. Indigo cultivation has greatly decreased of late years, and seems to be dying out. No statistics are available, showing the area under different crops, and the only return I have of the cultivated and uncultivated area is that taken at the time of the Revenue Survey (1846-51). At that time, the area of the District, exclusive of Calcutta and the Sundarbans, was returned at 1,437,440 acres, or 2246 square miles (as against its present area of 2536 square miles). Of the area in 1851, 878,528 acres were returned as under cultivation; 200,512 acres as fallow and cultivable; and 358,400 acres as village sites, roads, rivers, jungle, etc. The out-turn of rice from fairly good land is about 22 cwts. per acre; value on the field, £2, 2s. A second crop of pulses or oil-seeds raised on *áus* lands yields about £1, 10s. additional. A second crop of about the same value is also obtained from jute land. Rotation of crops is not practised, nor is the land allowed to remain fallow. Irrigation is seldom resorted to, and manure is used only for the more expensive crops, such as sugar-cane, tobacco, *pán*, etc. The condition of the peasantry has greatly improved of late years owing to the rise in value of agricultural produce, and they have ceased to be, as a rule, in debt to the village *mahájan*. Most of the land is held by husbandmen possessing occupancy rights. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land are returned as follow:—*Bástu* or homestead land, 12s. to £1, 4s.; *udbastu* or lands surrounding the homestead, and *bágát* or garden land, same rates as above; *khar* or thatching grass lands, 12s. to 15s.; *baraj* or *pán* gardens, £1, 1s.; tobacco and sugar-cane lands, 15s. to 18s.; *áus* rice land growing second crop, 6s. to 18s.; *áman* or winter rice land, 6s. to £1, 4s. Wages and prices are reported to have nearly trebled since 1830, and to have doubled since 1857. Smiths, in 1850, received 4 *ánnás* or 6d. per diem; in 1870, 8 *ánnás* or 1s.: bricklayers, in 1850, 3 *ánnás* or 4½d.; in 1870, 5 *ánnás* or 7½d.: carpenters, in 1850, 4 *ánnás* or 6d.; in 1870, 7 *ánnás* or 10½d.: coolies or agricultural labourers, 1 *ánná* or 1½d. in 1830, 2 *ánnás* or 3d. in 1856, and 3 *ánnás* or 4½d. in 1870. The above rates refer to rural labour; wages in Calcutta are now (1877) 25 to 50 per cent. higher. The ordinary prices of food grain in 1870 were as follow:—Best rice, Rs. 2. 8. a

maund, or 6s. 10d. a cwt.; common rice, Rs. 2. 3. a *maund*, or 6s. a cwt.; best unhusked rice, Rs. 1. 4. a *maund*, or 3s. 5½d. a cwt.; common unhusked rice, 14 *ánnás* a *maund*, or 2s. 4½d. a cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Floods on such a scale as to seriously affect the crops, but not to cause their general destruction, occurred in the years 1823, 1838, 1856, 1864, 1868, and 1871. A more complete destruction of the crops was caused by the drought of 1865; but the great famine of the following year did not very seriously affect this District, and the mortality from direct starvation was small. Symptoms of distress were first noticed in October 1865, prices rose rapidly, and relief operations were undertaken in May 1866. Work, principally in the shape of road-making, was provided for those who were able to labour. Gratuitous relief was afforded in money, food, and grain, from 19 relief centres, till the 1st December, when the harvesting of a good crop put an end to the necessity for relief. The maximum price of common rice, in 1866, was Rs. 6 a *maund*, or 16s. 4d. a cwt. Famine rates may be considered to be reached when ordinary coarse rice is selling at Rs. 3. 12. a *maund*, or 10s. 3d. a cwt.; at this price the wages of a day-labourer would not suffice to support himself, wife, and one child. If the December crop has failed, and rice reaches Rs. 2. 8. a *maund* or 6s. 9d. per cwt. in January, famine may be feared in spring. The means of communication in the Twenty-four Parganás are, however, sufficient to avert the extremity of famine by importation from other tracts, and no part of the District is in danger of isolation.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is chiefly carried on by means of permanent markets in the towns and fairs. Principal exports—rice, sugar, *pán* leaf, tobacco, vegetables, fish, pottery, bamboo, mats, etc. Imports—pulses of all kinds, oil-seeds, spices, turmeric, chillies, *ghí*, cloth, cotton, refined sugar, iron, *sál* timber, brass utensils, lime, etc. The exports of the Twenty-four Parganás considerably exceed the imports. The rural manufactures consist of sugar-making, both from the cane and also from the date palm; cotton curtains; brass and iron work, particularly padlocks and keys from Nátágarh and Ardabak, and iron bars, beams, scales, etc. from Pánīháti; horn sticks from Kálíganj; boats, principally from the Sundarbans; different sorts of cotton and *tasar* silk cloth from Sátgachhiá. Cotton and jute mills are numerous near Calcutta. There were, in 1870, 584 miles of roads in the Twenty-four Parganás, of which 216 were maintained from imperial funds, and 368 from local sources. The canals have been previously mentioned. The Eastern Bengal Railway has its principal terminus at Siáldah, just outside the town limits of Calcutta. It runs northwards through the Twenty-four Parganás parallel with the Húglí, and leaves the District at Halísháhr. From this point it is continued to Goalándá on the Ganges, where it connects with the Northern Bengal State Railway on

the other side of the river. The Calcutta and South-Eastern State Railway runs from Siáldah to Port Canning, a distance of 28 miles. It was originally constructed by a guaranteed company, but in 1868, as it did not pay its expenses, the line was taken over by Government. Its traffic is small. Three vernacular periodicals were published in 1870 in the Twenty-four Parganás (outside Calcutta)—the *Som Prakás*, a weekly newspaper; the *Pátshik Sambád*, a fortnightly journal; and the *Jyotíringan*, a religious periodical in Bengálí, published by the Calcutta Christian Tract and Book Society.

Administration.—In 1790, the net revenue of the District amounted to £91,123, and the expenditure to only £6991. In 1870, after the area had been about doubled by transfers from Nadiyá and Jessor, the net revenue stood at £321,483, and the expenditure at £79,958. The land tax forms the principal source of revenue, amounting, in 1870, to £163,746, 8s., or more than one-half of the whole. The other principal items are stamps, excise, and tolls. Five covenanted civilians have administrative charge of the District, with a Collector-Magistrate at their head. In 1870, they and their native subordinates presided over 19 magisterial, and 33 revenue and civil courts. For police purposes, the District is divided into 30 police circles (*thánás*), exclusive of Calcutta and its suburbs. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 899 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £17,489. There was also a municipal police of 655 men, costing £5557, and a rural police or village watch of 4089 men, costing in money or lands an estimated sum of £19,627. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property, consisted of 5643 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 0·4 square mile of the area and to every 521 persons of the population. The estimated total cost was £42,673, equal to an average of £15, 8s. 8d. per square mile of area and 5⅛d. per head of population. The number of persons in the Twenty-four Parganás convicted of any offence, great or small, in 1872, was 7056, being 1 person to every 276 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. Excluding the Calcutta jail, the Twenty-four Parganás contain 2 central jails for long-term male and female prisoners from other Districts; for local short-term prisoners, there is the District jail at Bárásat, and 6 sub-divisional lock-ups. Education has widely spread of late years. In 1856-57, excluding Calcutta, there were only 38 schools in the District receiving Government aid, attended by 4041 pupils. At the close of the year 1872-73, after the introduction of Sir George Campbell's educational reforms, by which State supervision was extended to many hitherto unaided village schools, there were 743 schools receiving State grants, attended by 29,787 pupils, besides 369 unaided schools, with 10,443 pupils, making a total of 1112

schools, with 40,230 pupils. The District is divided into 6 Administrative Subdivisions (or sub-Districts), and 65 Fiscal Divisions (*parganás*), with an aggregate in 1871-72 of 2064 revenue-paying estates, owned by 4170 registered proprietors or coparceners; average land revenue from each estate, £81, 3s. 6d.; from each proprietor, £40, 3s. 7d. The seventeen large municipalities contain an aggregate population of 261,634 persons; the total municipal income realized in 1871 was £8857, and the expenditure £8442; average rate of municipal taxation, 8⅛d. per head. Four other small villages have also been constituted municipalities for police and conservancy purposes; their aggregate municipal revenue, in 1869, amounted to £431, 12s. 6d.; expenditure, £385, 7s. 10d.

Medical Aspects.—The year is divided into three seasons—the hot, from the middle of March till about the middle of June, when the rainy season sets in, and lasts till October; the cold weather occupies the intervening months till the ensuing March. Monthly mean temperature at the observatory at Ságar Island, for the six years ending 1873—Jan. 69·3° F.; Feb. 74·4°; March, 80·5°; April, 84·1°; May, 85·8°; June, 85·7°; July, 83·7°; Aug. 83·7°; Sept. 82·9°; Oct. 80·9°; Nov. 74·3°; Dec. 68·6°; average for the year, 79·5°. The average annual rainfall at Ságar Island at the mouth of the Húglí, during the same six years, was 82·29 inches; the average at Calcutta, spread over a period of 32 years, was 66·04 inches. The prevailing diseases of the District are cholera, intermittent and remittent fevers, diarrhœa, and dysentery. Eleven charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief in 1871 to 1112 in-door and 33,224 out-door patients (exclusive of Calcutta), the death-rate among the in-door patients being 18·52 per cent. Vital statistics, collected in certain selected areas, showed in 1874-75 a death-rate of 24·52 per thousand in the rural, and of 39·22 per thousand in the urban area. Two central lunatic asylums, one for Europeans and Eurasians, and another for natives, are situated in the Twenty-four Parganás. Cattle epidemics occasionally occur, and it is estimated that an outbreak of rinderpest in 1868 caused the loss of 26,151 head of cattle.

Tyamgondal.—Municipal town in Bangalore District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 13′ N., long. 77° 22′ E.; pop. (1871), 3804; municipal revenue (1874-75), £23; rate of taxation, 1½d. per head. A centre of trade, formed since the abandonment of the old town of Nijagal, and now the residence of many merchants and traders in grain. The waters of the Kumadvati river have been intercepted in large tanks.

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Ubauro.—*Táluk* of Rohri Deputy Collectorate, Shikárpur District, Sind. Area, 450 square miles; pop. (1872), 42,043; gross revenue (1873-74), £7812.

Ubauro.—Town and headquarters of the above *táluk*, Shikárpur District, Sind. Lat. 28° 11′ N., long. 69° 30′ E.; 70 miles from Rohri. Contains the usual public buildings. Pop. (1878), 2585, viz. 1614 Hindus and 971 Muhammadans. Trade in grain, oil, cotton, *ghí*, etc. There is an ancient mosque here, said to have been erected in 1552 A.D. The town itself dates from about 987 A.D. It is the headquarters of the Dhar tribe, who are reported to have come from Rájputána about 1150 A.D.

Uchad.—A Native State in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 4 square miles. The present chief is called Daima Jitamia. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £900, and a tribute of £88 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Uchahara (*Unchehra*, *Ucheyra*).—Native State under the political superintendence of the Rewa Political Agency.—*See* NAGODE.

Uchh.—Ancient town in Baháwalpur State, Punjab; situated on the eastern bank of the Panjnád river, 70 miles south-south-west of Múltán, and 40 miles north-east of the present confluence of the Panjnád with the Indus at Mithánkot. Lat. 29° 13′ N., long. 71° 9′ E. (?) General Cunningham has identified Uchh with the city which Alexander the Great built near the meeting of the Punjab rivers. He believes that it is also the town mentioned by Rashid-ud-dín as the capital of one of the four principalities of Sind under Ayand, the son of Kafand, who reigned after Alexander. Uchh was captured by Mahmúd of Ghazní, and by Muhammad Ghori, and was the chief city of Upper Sind under Násir-ud-dín Kubáchah. It subsequently formed part of the independent kingdom of Múltán, and after many vicissitudes was permanently annexed to the Mughal Empire under Akbar, being included by Abul Fazl among the separate Districts of the Subah of Múltán. General Cunningham has compiled an interesting account of the operations of Alexander in the country around Uchh (*Ancient Geography of India*, pp. 242-248, ed. 1871). Uchh is now an agglomeration of ruins representing successive cities built at widely different dates. The high respect in which the site is held by the Muhammadans bears witness alike to the antiquity of the town and to the great names with which it is associated in Musalmán history.

Udáipur (or *Mewár*).—A Native State in Rájputána. Bounded on the north by the British territory of Ajmere; on the east by the Native States of Bundi, Gwalior, Tonk, and Partábgarh; on the south by

Banswára and Dungarpur and the Mahi Kántha ; on the north-west by Sirohi, Godwar, and the British Province of Mhairwára-Ajmere. Udáipur extends from 23° 46′ to 25° 56′ N. lat., and from 72° 50′ to 75° 38′ E. long. It is about 150 miles in length from north to south, and 130 miles in breadth, and contains an area estimated at 11,614 square miles, of which three-fifths are plain and the remainder hilly and mountainous. The population has been roughly estimated at about 100 to the square mile, or a total of 1,161,400 souls. Of these, it is estimated that about 150,000 belong to the tribes of the hilly tracts. A section of the Aravalli range of mountains extends over the south-western portion of the State, from the city of Udáipur to the frontier of Sirohi ; whence it stretches northwards through Kumalmer towards Ajmere, separating Udáipur from Jodhpur. Northward of Kumalmer, this mountain tract is called Mhairwára ; its breadth here varies from 6 to 15 miles, and its deep and rugged valleys and gorges have in all ages afforded haunts to the Bhíls, Minás, and Mhairs, and other aboriginal or half-blood tribes. Southward of Kumalmer, the range is inhabited by communities of the aboriginal races acknowledging no paramount power, and paying no tribute.

The Aravalli Mountains of Udáipur are chiefly of granite, the valleys of variegated quartz. Slate is found in places. The only metals known to exist in the low ground are lead and iron. Iron-ore is found on the eastern frontier, but the process of smelting is so rude and expensive that little iron is manufactured. There are zinc-mines at Jáwar, 24 miles south of Udáipur city, which formerly yielded a considerable revenue, but now remain unworked. Copper is found near Chittor. In the hills tin is found ; the mines of this mineral are stated to have been formerly productive. Silver is also found, as well as copper, and traces of gold. Garnets, amethysts, and similar stones are occasionally met with. The general inclination of the country is from south-west to north-east, as indicated by the course of the principal river, the Banas and its numerous feeders flowing from the base of the Aravalli range. The capital city, Udáipur, picturesquely situated on a lake, and facing wooded hills, has an elevation of 2000 feet above the sea. To the south and west of Udáipur city, many streams take their rise, which mostly flow through the Mahi Kántha southwards into the Sabarmati river. There are numerous lakes and tanks throughout the State. The finest, from an engineering point of view, is that at Kankroli or Rájnagar. The retaining wall of this lake cannot be less than 2 miles in length, built of massive masonry, and of great height and thickness, supported by earthen embankments. In places the wall is 40 feet in height, and faced with marble. The area of the lake is about 12 square miles, and the depth is said to be very considerable. Many other artificial lakes are very large, but in several cases the old embankments by which they were formed have been injured and left in ruins.

The majority of the inhabitants are Rájputs; but there are three tribes who may be regarded as aborigines, occupying the several ranges of hills, viz. the Mhairs on the north-west, the Bhíls on the south, and the Minás on the north-east. The Mhairs and Minás live in villages; but the Bhíls generally occupy a *pál*, that is, a number of houses, each built upon a hillock, at some little distance from its neighbour. A *pál*, therefore, may cover several square miles of ground. The object of the Bhíls in thus building their dwellings is to render it impossible to surprise a whole village at once. A single individual may be arrested, but the warning cry which he will utter gives the alarm to the whole community; and in a few minutes, the war-cry being taken up from hill to hill, the whole country seems suddenly to swarm with semi-naked savages armed and prepared to attack the intruder. The Bhíls are under the partial control of their own chiefs, but rarely acknowledge any other power. And it is generally difficult for the Udáipur *darbár* to coerce them, for the climate is unhealthy, supplies are scarce, and the country is extremely difficult. There are few wilder or more lawless tracts throughout the length and breadth of the Indian peninsula.

In the plains, cotton, oil-seed, *joár* (Holcus sorghum), *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), and Indian corn are sown in the rains; in the cold weather, barley, wheat, sugar-cane, opium, and tobacco.

Camels and cattle are said not to be numerous; sheep and goats are very plentiful. Good horses are scarce.

History.—The Udáipur family is the highest in rank and dignity among the Rájput chiefs of India, being the elder branch of the *Surya Vansa*, or 'Children of the Sun.' The ruling chief is considered by Hindus to be the direct representative of Ráma, from whom was descended Kanak Sen, who was the founder of the Udáipur family about 144 A.D. The families of Dungarpur, Sirohi, and Partábgarh are offshoots from the same line. No State in India made a more courageous or more prolonged resistance to the Muhammadans. It is the boast of the family that they never gave a daughter in marriage to any of the Muhammadan Emperors. They belong to the Sesodia sept of the great Gehlot clan, often called 'the noblest of the Rájputs.' The foundation of the Gehlot dynasty in Rájputána was effected by Bappa Ráwal, who is said to have established himself in Chittor and Mewár in 728 A.D. It was by this prince that Muhammad Kásim, the lieutenant of the Khálif Wálid, is supposed to have been defeated upon his advance to Chittor after the conquest of Sind; but the story of the advance of the Sind Arabs into Central India is of dubious authenticity. Between Bappa and the accession of Samarsi to the throne of Udáipur, a period somewhat exceeding four centuries intervened. In 1193, the sovereignty of Chittor was given to the younger branch; the elder having been expelled, fled to the wilds, founded the city of Dungarpur, and became the

ancestor of the ruling family of that State. In 1201, Rahup was in possession of Chittor. He changed the title of his family and tribe from the clan name of Gehlot to the subdivisional name of Sesodia; and that of its prince from Ráwal to Ráná. During the next fifty years, from Rahup to Lakumsi, nine princes of Chittor were installed. In the rule of this last-named prince (1275 to 1290 A.D.), Alá-ud-dín besieged Chittor; and in 1303 A.D., the imperial forces captured and sacked it. It was, however, almost immediately afterwards recovered by Hamír, who then ruled in Mewár. The chroniclers of Mewár, quoted by Tod (*Annals of Rájásthán*), dwell with pride on the exploits of the great Ráná Hamír. According to these, he is said to have marched to meet Mahmúd, who was advancing to recover his lost possessions, to have defeated and taken prisoner the Emperor, and not to have liberated him till he had agreed to the surrender of Ajmere, Rinthambor, Nagar, and other towns. He is also reported to have received homage from the princes of Márwár, Jáipur, Bundi, and Gwalior, and to have rendered the power of Udáipur as solid and extensive as it had been before the Musalmán occupation of Hindustán. From the death of Hamír, for a century and a half the arms of Mewár were successful, until the reign of Sanga, the competitor of Bábar, when Mewár had reached the summit of its prosperity. Its boundaries were then the Píla-khál ('yellow rivulet'), near Biana, on the north; the Sind river on the east; Málwá on the south; and an impenetrable barrier of hills on the west: thus either ruling directly or exercising overlordship in the major part of Ráj-putána.

Such was the condition of Udáipur at the date of the Emperor Bábar's invasion. The Tartar prince having defeated Ibráhim Lodi, and secured Agra and Delhi, turned his arms against Ráná Sanga of Chittor. Sanga marched towards Agra; the opposing forces met near Kanua; and a successful attack by the Rájput troops on the Tartar advance guard forced the Muhammadans, for their own security, to throw up entrenchments, in which Bábar was blockaded for about a fortnight. But on the 15th of March 1527, Bábar drew up his army in front of the entrenchments. A desperate conflict ensued for several hours, in which the Musalmáns ultimately obtained a decisive victory. Ráná Sanga retired with the wreck of his gallant army towards the hills, resolved never to enter his capital except in triumph. He did not long survive his defeat; and was succeeded in 1530 by his son Ráná Ratná, who ruled five years, and lost his life in a personal encounter with the prince of Búndi. He was succeeded by his brother Vikramáditya. This prince, by his haughty demeanour, alienated the attachment of his vassals. Bahádur, the Sultán of Guzerat, taking advantage of their disaffection, invaded Mewár, defeated the Ráná, and laid siege to Chittor. This sacred fortress was long and bravely defended, and

when further opposition became vain, 1300 females were immolated; then throwing open the gates, the survivors of the devoted garrison rushed upon the enemy, and sold their lives at the highest price. The advance of Humáyún, son of Bábar, compelled Bahádur to retire towards Guzerat. Ráná Vikramáditya was then restored to his capital, but was shortly after deposed and put to death by his nobles.

After a short usurpation by Banbir, a spurious member of the family, the throne of Mewár was occupied by Ráná Udái Sinh, the youngest son of Ráná Sanga. During his rule in 1568, Chittor was taken by the Emperor Akbar, with great slaughter. On the loss of his capital, the Ráná retired to the valley of the Girwa in the Aravalli hills, where he founded the city of Udáipur, henceforth the capital of Mewár. Udái Sinh survived the loss of Chittor only four years; and was succeeded by his son Partáb, who disdained submission to the conqueror. After sustaining repeated defeats, Partáb fled into the deserts towards Sind. Fortune suddenly turned in his favour. By the help of some money supplied by his minister, he collected his straggling adherents, surprised and cut to pieces the imperial forces at Dewair, and followed up his advantage with such celerity and energy, that in a short campaign he recovered nearly all Mewár, of which he retained undisturbed possession until his death. Partáb was succeeded by his son Umra, who enjoyed tranquillity during the remainder of Akbar's reign. But Akbar's successor, Jahángír, determined upon the entire subjugation of Mewár. In prosecuting this design, he was twice defeated by Ráná Umra.

Alarmed at these defeats, Jahángír tried the experiment of setting up Sugra, the brother of the late Ráná Partáb, in opposition to his nephew Umra. After seven years, Sugra, ashamed of his own apostasy from the national cause, put Ráná Umra in possession of the ancient capital. On this, Jahángír equipped an overwhelming force to crush the Ráná. This army, which was commanded by Parwíz, the Emperor's son, was entangled in the pass of Khamnor, and suffered a complete defeat. Jahángír then despatched Mahábat Khán, the ablest of his generals, to take command of the army. Mahábat's success falling far short of the Emperor's expectations, he removed the imperial camp to Ajmere, with the avowed intention of placing himself at the head of the army employed against the Ráná. The army was, however, really commanded by his son Sultán Khurram, afterwards Sháh Jahán. Although the Rájputs had generally been successful in battle, yet their diminished numbers rendered further opposition to the colossal power of the empire hopeless. In this state of things, Ráná Umra made his submission to the Emperor in 1613. He was magnanimously received by Jahángír, who lavished honours and distinctions upon him and his son Karran Sinh. Ráná Umra's proud spirit could not brook dependence, however disguised; and in 1621, he abdicated in favour of his son Karran,

who died in 1628, and was succeeded by his son Jagat Sinh, who was succeeded by his son Ráj Sinh in 1654. Sháh Jahán's mother having been a princess of the house of Jáipur, he was well disposed towards the Rájputs, who enjoyed peace during his reign.

Aurangzeb's attempt to impose a capitation tax on Hindus was successfully resisted by the Rájputs, who defeated the imperial armies in several sanguinary conflicts. An accommodation was, however, effected in 1681, by which the emperor relinquished the odious tax. In the same year, Ráná Ráj Sinh died of his wounds, and was succeeded by his son Jái Sinh, who ruled in peace twenty years. He was succeeded by his son Umra, who took an active part in the quarrels between the sons of Aurangzeb. Intolerance had rendered the Emperor obnoxious to the Rájputs, and led to the formation of a confederacy by the rulers of Márwár, Mewár, and Jáipur (Amber), for the purpose of throwing off Muhammadan supremacy. In 1713, during the reign of the Emperor Farrukh Siyyar, the confederates commenced their operations, by expelling the Mughal officers and razing the mosques which had been erected upon the sites of Hindu temples. This triple confederacy was but of short duration. Ajit, Rájá of Márwár, made separate terms with the Emperor, to whom he gave a daughter in marriage; and Ráná Umra soon afterwards concluded a treaty with the Emperor, which, though it admitted subordination, was in all other respects favourable. Umra died in 1716, and was succeeded by Sangram Sinh, in whose time the power of the Mughal Empire rapidly declined, and the Marhattás began to overrun Central India. Sangram was succeeded by his son Jagat Sinh II. The Emperor having ceded the *chauth* (or one-fourth of the revenue) to the Marhattás, who were already in possession of Málwá and Guzerat, they exacted it from the States of Rájputána as being dependencies of the Empire. In 1736, Peshwá Báji Ráo concluded a treaty with the Ráná, by which the latter was compelled to pay *chauth* to the amount of £16,000.

The Udáipur family refused to intermarry with Rájput families who had given daughters in marriage to the Mughal Emperors. This refusal was keenly felt by the other Rájputs. The re-admission to the honour of matrimonial connection with the Udáipur family was always stipulated in the coalitions formed by the Rájput chiefs against the Mughals; and it was further agreed that the sons of Udáipur princesses should succeed the father in preference to elder sons by other mothers. This led to family dissensions, which the Marhattás artfully turned to their own advantage. On the death of Sawal Jái Sinh of Jáipur in 1743, his eldest son, Asuri Sinh, was proclaimed Rájá; but a strong party supported the claim of Madhu Sinh, a younger son by the sister of the Ráná of Udáipur, who espoused the cause of his nephew, while Asuri Sinh obtained assistance from Sindhia. In an engagement which took place in 1747,

the Ráná was defeated. He then called in the aid of Holkar, under an engagement to pay him £640,000 on the deposition of Asuri Sinh. A dose of poison gave Madhu Sinh the throne, and Holkar the money. Ráná Jagat Sinh died in 1752, and was succeeded by his son Partáb Sinh, during whose short rule of three years Mewár was plundered by the Marhattás.

He was succeeded by his son Ráná Ráj Sinh, who ruled seven years, during which the ravages and exactions of the Marhattás continued. He was succeeded by his uncle Ráná Ursi in 1762. This Ráná made himself unpopular with most of his chiefs, who formed a party to depose him and to set up a youth named Ratná Sinh, alleged to be a posthumous son of the late Ráná. A civil war ensued. Both parties applied for assistance to the Marhattás, who were ever ready to act as armed arbitrators. Sindhia took the part of the pretender. In a severe battle fought near Ujjain about 1768, the Ráná was defeated. Sindhia laid siege to Udáipur, which would have fallen, but for the talent and energy of the Diwán, Umra Chand Barwá. After a protracted siege, Sindhia agreed to abandon the pretender on the payment of £700,000. After the treaty had been signed, Sindhia, believing he could dictate his terms, demanded 20 *lákhs* (£200,000) more. Umra indignantly tore up the treaty, and sent the fragments with defiance to Sindhia, who, alarmed at the resolute spirit thus evinced by the garrison, made overtures for a renewal of negotiations. Umra replied that he must deduct from the original terms the expense that had been occasioned by the bad faith of the Marhattás. At length, Sindhia accepted £635,000, of which £330,000 was paid, and the Districts of Jawad Jiram, Nimach, and Marwun were mortgaged for the remainder. These lands have never been recovered by Mewár. Marwun was made over to Holkar, who in 1771 extorted from the Ráná the surrender of the District of Nimbhera. The Province of Godwar was about the same time granted on feudal tenure to Jodhpur, and lost to Mewár.

Ráná Ursi was murdered by the heir-apparent of Búndi while on a hunting excursion. He was succeeded by his son Ráná Hamír, a minor. His mother's ambition for power, and the feuds among the chiefs, had well-nigh dissolved the Government. Regardless of previous experience, the Rání-mother in 1775 invited the aid of Sindhia to reduce the Begun chief, who had revolted and usurped State lands. Sindhia exacted for his own benefit a fine of £120,000 from the refractory chiefs, and took possession of the Districts of Ratangarh, Kheri, and Singoli, and made over those of Irmia, Játh, Bichor, and Naddomay to Holkar. Up to this period, the Marhattás had extorted from Mewár £1,810,000, and territory to the annual value of £280,000. In 1778, the young Ráná died, and was succeeded by his brother, Bhím Sinh. The commencement of his rule was marked by sanguinary

feuds among his chiefs, which rendered the country an easy prey to the insatiable rapacity of the Marhattás, who for their own aggrandizement identified themselves with all parties by turns. Mewár was devastated alternately by Sindhia and Holkar, until it was rendered almost desolate.

The suit of the Rájá of Jáipur for the hand of the Princess Kishna Kaur of Udáipur, had been favourably received by her father. But Rájá Mán Sinh of Márwár also advanced pretensions to the lady, on the plea that she had been betrothed to his predecessor, and that the engagement was with the State and not the individual ruler. This led to a ruinous war between Márwár and Jáipur. The minister of Udáipur was induced to advise the Ráná to sacrifice his daughter to the peace of Rájputána. The father at last yielded, and poison was administered to the ill-fated princess. From this time, 1806 to 1817, Mewár continued to be ravaged by Marhattás, and by the Pindhári leader Amír Khán. On the suppression in 1817 of the predatory system which had prevailed in Central India, it was resolved, chiefly with a view to prevent its revival, to extend British influence and protection over the States of Rájputána. The chiefs were accordingly invited to ally themselves with the British Government, on the basis of acknowledging its supremacy and paying a certain tribute in return for external protection and internal independence. The Ráná of Udáipur eagerly embraced the invitation, and signed a treaty accordingly.

Maháráná Bhím Sinh died in 1828, and was succeeded by his only son, Jowán Sinh, who died in 1838, leaving no issue, and was succeeded by Sardár Sinh, chief of Bagor, the nearest heir to the family. He died in 1842, and was succeeded by his younger and adopted brother, Maháráná Surup Sinh, who was succeeded in 1861 by his great nephew, Sambhu Sinh. The latter, dying in 1874, was succeeded by Sujan Sinh, the present Mahárání, who was born in 1858.

The District of Mhairwára, inhabited by predatory tribes, and belonging partly to Udáipur, partly to Jodhpur, and partly to the British Government in virtue of its possession of Ajmere, was occupied by a British force in 1821. With a view to the pacification and improvement of the country, it was taken under British administration, and a local corps was raised from the Bhíls, towards the maintenance of which the State of Udáipur contributes £5000 yearly. In addition, tribute is paid to the British Government of £20,000. The total gross revenue of the State was estimated in 1875 at about £510,000, of which about £190,000 is enjoyed by the subordinate chiefs, subject to the payment of *chatund* or contribution towards the expenditure and requirements of the State. Deducting these alienations and the religious endowments, British tribute, etc., there remains to the State about £180,000.

A road connecting the military station of Nasírábád and Nimach

passes through the State. From the city of Udáipur, a metalled road runs in the direction of Nimach, and a link-line to Nimbhera. A fair-weather road has also been made from Udáipur city to the Dasuri Pass through the Aravalli range. Prior to the construction of this pass, the Aravallis formed an almost impassable barrier to all wheeled carriages from Barh near Ajmere to the south of Sirohi, a distance of upwards of 250 miles. The Nimach State Railway on the metre gauge, connecting Indore and Nimach with Nasírábád, will pass through the north-eastern part of the State. At Udáipur city, there is a school which in 1875 was attended by 538 boys and 30 girls. The English, Hindí, Persian, and Urdu languages are taught in different classes. There are also dispensaries at Udáipur, and vaccination is being gradually introduced.

The military force of the State consists of 263 guns of all calibre (including all the old guns in the forts), 1338 artillerymen, 6240 cavalry, and 13,900 infantry. The Mahárání of Udáipur is entitled to a salute of 19 guns, but the present ruler has been granted a personal salute of 21 guns.

Udáipur (*Oodeypore*).—Capital of the Native State of Mewár or Udáipur in Rájputána; situated in lat. 24° 35′ 19″ N., and long. 73° 43′ 23″ E. The site of Udáipur ('The City of the Sunrise'), with its palace placed on a low ridge overlooking a romantic lake, is one of the most beautiful and picturesque in India. To this place, after the capture of Chittor by Akbar in 1568 A.D., the Mahárání Udái Sinh of Mewár repaired, and built himself a refuge among the mountains; and shortly a city sprang up, which he called after his own name. In 1577, in the time of the famous Mahárání Partáb Sinh, Udáipur was for a time occupied by the Mughal troops of Akbar under Mahábat Khán; but Partáb regained possession of his capital in 1586. In 1769, the city was besieged by the Marhattás under Madhují Sindhia; and was only saved from capture by the vigour of the *díwán*, Umra Chánd Barwá, and by the cession of some important tracts of territory.

The royal palace at Udáipur is thus described by Tod (*Annals of Rájásthán*), vol. i. pp. 406, 407: 'The palace is a most imposing pile, of a regular form, built of granite and marble, rising at least 100 feet from the ground, and flanked with octagonal towers, crowned with cupolas. Although built at various periods, uniformity of design has been very well preserved; nor is there in the East a more striking or majestic structure. It stands upon the very crest of a ridge running parallel to, but considerably elevated above, the margin of the lake. The terrace which is at the east and chief front of the palace extends throughout its length, and is supported by a triple row of arches from the declivity of the ridge. The height of this arcaded wall is full 50 feet; and although all is hollow beneath, yet so admirably is it constructed, that an entire range of stables is built on the extreme verge of the terrace, on which

the whole personal force of the Ráná, elephants, horse, and foot, are often assembled. From this terrace the city and the valley lie before the spectator, whose vision is bounded only by the hills shutting out the plains; while from the summit of the palace nothing obstructs its range over lake and mountain.' The great lake, close to the city on the west, was constructed by Udái Sinh; it is about 5 miles in circumference. There is also another smaller one, 6 miles west of it. Udáipur is situated at an elevation of 2064 feet above sea level.

Udáipur. — Native State in Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal, under the political superintendence of the Commissioner of Chutiá Nágpur and the Bengal Government; lies between 22° 3′ 30″ and 22° 47′ N. lat., and between 83° 4′ 30″ and 83° 49′ 30″ E. long. Udáipur is bounded on the north by Sargujá; on the east by the British District of Raigarh in the Central Provinces, and the State of Jashpur; on the south by Raigarh; and on the west by the District of Biláspur. It contains an area of 1051 square miles, and a population (1872) of 27,708 souls. The chief geological formation is a coarse carboniferous sandstone. Gold and iron are found in small quantities; and within the boundaries of Udáipur lies a portion of one of the most extensive coal-fields in India, but no attempt has hitherto been made to work it. The only hill of any size in the State is Lotta (2098 feet). The river Mand rises near Girsa in Sargujá, and, receiving the drainage of the southern part of the Máinpát plateau in that State, flows through Udáipur in a winding course towards the south-west, and joins the Mahánadi in Raigarh. It is not navigable within the limits of Udáipur. This State, with the rest of the Sargujá group of States in Chutiá Nágpur, was ceded to the British Government by the provisional agreement concluded with Madhují Bhonslá (Apá Sáhib) in 1818, having formerly been an appanage of a younger branch of the ruling family in Sargujá. In 1852, the State escheated to Government. At the time of the Mutiny in 1857, the former chief and his brother (who had been convicted of manslaughter and sentenced to imprisonment) made their way back to Udáipur, and established a short-lived rule. In 1859, the survivor of the two brothers was captured, convicted of murder and rebellion, and transported for life to the Andaman Islands. Subsequently, in 1860, the State was conferred on a brother of the Rájá of Sargujá, who had done good service to the Government during the Mutiny. He pays a tribute of £53, 6s. 8d., and is also charged with some allowances to members of the former ruling family. He is bound to furnish, when so required, a contingent for military service. The chief town or village of Udáipur is Rábkob, situated on a picturesque bend of the Mánd river, near the centre of the State. On the summit of the cliff which here rises from the right bank of the river is Sháhpur or Sáipur, the old castle of the Rájás of Udáipur, built in an almost impregnable

position, at a height of 150 feet above the stream. There are at Rábkob a police station and a jail, maintained by the Rájá; also a large granary. Periodical markets are held here, and at Dorki, on the right bank of the Mánd, 24 miles south of Rábkob. The chief exports of the State are lac (said to amount to 2000 *maunds* annually), cotton, resin, oil-seeds, rice, wild arrowroot, iron, and a small quantity of gold. The land tenure in villages under the direct management of the Rájá is on the *gáontiá* system, *see* GANGPUR. The police organization of the State is purely indigenous, and is for the most part worked by the Gond *jágírdárs* as a part of the service by which they hold their *jágírs*.

Udáipur.—Subdivision of Hill Tipperah State, Bengal; formed in 1874-75.

Udáipur.—Headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name in Hill Tipperah State, Bengal; situated in lat. 23° 31′ 25″ N., and long. 91° 31′ 10″ E., on the south or left bank of the Gumti, a few miles lower down the river than Old Udáipur (*vide infra*), the former capital of the State, and the ancient residence of the Rájás, which is now deserted and overgrown by dense jungle. Udáipur contains few houses besides those of the guard. It is a mart for large quantities of cotton, timber, and bamboos, which are brought down from the hills by the wild tribes and bartered for tobacco, salt, and dried fish. The name Tripurá or Tipperah was probably given to this tract of country in honour of the temple at Udáipur, of which remains still exist. It ranks as the second *tirtha*, or sacred shrine, in this part of Bengal, and was dedicated either to Tripuradana, 'the sun-god,' or to Tripureswarí, 'the mistress of the three worlds.' The temple is visited annually by thousands of pilgrims.

Udáipur, Old.—Ruined town in Hill Tipperah State, Bengal, the ancient capital of Rájá Udái Mánikya, who reigned over this part of the country in the latter half of the 16th century; situated on the left bank of the Gumti river, a few miles above the modern village of UDAIPUR. The palace and all the buildings connected with it have long been deserted, and are now overgrown by dense forest jungle, the wall which apparently once encircled the Rájá's residence being traced with difficulty amidst the profusion of vegetation. Within the enclosing wall, there are still many houses in excellent preservation. Others again are fast falling to the ground, but enough remains to show their former strength, and the care with which they were constructed. The walls are rarely less than 4 feet in thickness, and the floors of most of the buildings are raised high above the ground; the brick foundation in one case having an elevation of about 10 feet. There is one two-storied building, with large doorways on each side of the upper storey, and on three sides of the lower storey. The doorways are arched, and the neat and simple carving above them has been almost unaffected by

the length of time that the place has been deserted. Near this house are some large brick buildings, apparently monuments erected to the memory of deceased Rájás or Ránís. On the ground outside one of the buildings in the enclosure is an iron cannon, 8 feet in length, but how it came there is not known. Every person who visits the spot makes an obeisance before the gun, and places on the top a leaf or branch, in the belief that if his offering be accepted, it will be miraculously removed from the position in which he placed it, and covered by the gun. At a short distance from the ruins of the palace is a Sivaite temple, to which pilgrimages are still made by devout Hindus. Close to the temple are several small buildings, with square blocks of white stone sunk above the doorways, with Bengálí inscriptions. Hard by is an enormous tank full of clear water, and abounding in fish. Thick forest trees have now grown up on its banks, and give it the appearance of a huge oval-shaped lake in the midst of an almost impenetrable jungle.

Udáipur Chhota.—State and town in the Province of Gujrát, Bombay.—*See* CHHOTA UDAIPUR.

Udaiyárpálaiyam.—Town in Trichinopoli District, Madras. Lat. 11° 11′ 20″ N., long. 79° 20′ E.; pop. (1871), 5879, inhabiting 877 houses. An agricultural and market town.

Udalgurí.—Village in the north-west of Darrang District, Assam, near the Bhután frontier, at which an annual fair is held for trade with the neighbouring hill tribes. The fair lasts for three or four weeks, during which time the Bhutiá chiefs come down to Tezpur to receive their stipulated presents. In 1875, it was estimated that the Bhutiás sold goods to the value of £5042, chiefly ponies, blankets, salt, and wax; and took away goods valued at £2571, principally rice, cotton cloth, and brass-ware.

Udamalpet.—Chief town of the Udamalpet *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras, with the usual courts. Lat. 10° 35′ 40″ N., long. 77° 17′ 15″ E.; pop. (1871), 5808, inhabiting 1065 houses. Staging bungalow.

Udárband.—Village in North Cáchár, Assam, where there is a *bázár* frequented by the Nágás and other hill tribes, who bring down caoutchouc, cotton, and beeswax to barter for salt and hardware.

Udáyagiri.—Sandstone hill in Purí District, Bengal; rises abruptly out of the jungle, and is separated from KHANDGIRI by a narrow gorge. Both these peaks are honeycombed with caves and temples cut out of the solid rock. One cave at Udáyagiri has been known from time immemorial as the Tiger Cave. It stands out from the hill in the form of a monstrous wild beast's jaw, with nose and eyes above, and the teeth overhanging the entrance to the cell. This Buddhist cave-dwelling perhaps dates from 300 B.C.

Udáyagiri.—Village and hill in Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 14° 52′ N., long. 79° 19′ E.; pop. (1871), 3252, inhabiting 801 houses. The hill, which was once strongly fortified, is quite isolated, being 8 miles from the main chain of the Eastern Gháts; 3079 feet above sea level. Udáyagiri was formerly a place of importance, and the capital of a small kingdom, founded by Langula Gajapati in the 14th century, one of whose descendants was defeated by Krishna Ráya in 1509. From that date it was held by semi-independent chiefs, who repeatedly rebelled against the central authority at Golconda. It afterwards became a *jágír* under the Nawáb of Arcot. The last *jágírdár* was deprived of his estate in 1840 by the East India Company, on a charge of treason. The ruins of several Hindu temples still remain, but all trace of fortification on the hill has disappeared.

Uddhánpur.—Market village in Bardwán District, Bengal; situated on the bank of the Bhágirathi, in lat. 23° 41′ 10″ N., and long. 88° 11′ E. Ferry across the river.

Udhanálá (*Oodeynullah*).—Village in the Santál Parganás District, Bengal; situated in lat. 24° 59′ 30″ N., and long. 87° 53′ 15″ E., 6 miles south of Rájmahál. The remains of entrenched camps, where the army of the Nawáb Mír Kásim was defeated by Major Adams in 1763, may still be seen at this spot.

Udipi.—Chief town of a *táluk* of the same name in South Kánara District, Madras; situated in lat. 13° 20′ 30″ N., and long. 74° 47′ E. Pop. (1871), 3857, inhabiting 754 houses. Udipi is considered by Hindus to be the most sacred spot in the Kánarese country, and is much frequented by pilgrims from Mysore (Maisúr). There are eight *maths* (Hindu monasteries); and the management of the temple, which is very ancient and largely endowed, is held by the heads of these *maths* in rotation, for two years each. A suburb of Udipi, Kalyánapur, is probably the Kalliena of Cosmas Indicopleustes (545 A.D.).

Udumalpetai.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras.—*See* UDAMALPET.

Ughi.—Frontier valley in Hazára District, Punjab.—*See* AGRORE.

Ugú.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated on level ground, surrounded by orchards, 22 miles from Unao town and 5 from Fatehpur Chaurási. Founded by Rájá Ugarsen, a Panwár Kshattriya of Kanauj, whose descendants held it till the 15th century, when they were overthrown in a war with Ibráhím Sharki of Jaunpur. The Kurmís then took possession of Ugú, and still hold it. Three temples, vernacular school, and remains of a palace and court-house. Annual fair, and two weekly markets. Pop. (1869), 4452, namely, 4290 Hindus and 162 Musalmáns.

Uja (*Unja*).—Town in Baroda State, Guzerat. Lat. 23° 48′ 10″ N.,

long. 72° 27′ E.; pop. (1872), 8452. This town is probably the original seat in Guzerat of the Kadwa Kunbís, who migrated from Márwár in the time of the Rájput kings. The Kadwa Kunbís now constitute about a third of the total population.

Ujháni.—Town in Budáun District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 0′ 25″ N., and long. 79° 2′ 20″ E., 8 miles south-west of Budáun town, on the Etah road. Pop. (1872), 7656. Well-built town, good market. Several handsome mosques, and a mausoleum of Abdullá Khán (second son of Alí Muhammad Khán), who held the *parganá*, and had tried to poison Háfiz Rahmat Khán. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £642; from taxes, £346, or 10¾d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Ujjain (*Ujjaiyini*).—Town in the Native State of GWALIOR (the dominions of the Mahárájá Sindhia), Málwá; situated on the right bank of the river Sipra, in lat. 23° 11′ 10″ N., and long. 75° 51′ 45″ E. Though much decayed, Ujjain is still a large and populous city, with considerable commerce; its chief trade consists in the export of opium, and the import of European goods (especially cotton fabrics).

Ujjain was in ancient times the great and famous capital of Málwá, one of the seven sacred cities of the Hindus, and the spot which marked the first meridian of Hindu geographers. It is stated to have been the seat of the viceroyalty of the famous Asoka during the reign of his father at Pátaliputra (*circ.* 263 B.C.), but is best known in history as the capital of Vikramáditya. The kingdom of Málwá with its capital fell into the hands of the Muhammadan kings of Delhi, in the time of Alá-ud-dín Khiljí (1295-1317 A.D.); and in 1387 A.D., the Musalmán viceroy asserted his independence. The Muhammadan kingdom of Málwá lasted till 1531, when it was absorbed into the kingdom of Guzerat by Bahádur Sháh; and in 1571 A.D., the whole of this part of India was conquered by Akbar, and once more annexed to the Empire of Delhi. The neighbourhood of the city was, in 1658, the scene of the decisive battle between Aurangzeb and his brother Dara. In 1792, Ujjain was taken and burnt by Holkar; but subsequently fell into the hands of his rival, Sindhia, whose capital it remained until 1810, when Daulat Ráo Sindhia removed his residence to Gwalior.

Thornton states that the modern city of Ujjain is of oblong outline, 6 miles in circumference, surrounded by a stone wall with round towers. The principal *bázár* is a spacious street, with houses of two storeys, 4 mosques, and many Hindu temples, also a palace of Sindhia. Near the palace is an ancient gateway, said to have been part of King Vikramáditya's fort. At the southern end of the city is the observatory erected by Jái Sinh, Mahárájá of Jáipur, in the time of the Emperor Muhammad Sháh; the remarkable results of the astronomical observations of this learned prince at Ujjain, Delhi, Jáipur,

Benares, and Mathurá were formulated in a set of tables noticed by Tod (*Annals of Rájásthán*, vol. ii. p. 329). The modern city of Ujjain is surrounded on all sides by an almost uninterrupted belt of groves and gardens. The ruins of the ancient city are situated about a mile to the northward.

Uk-kan (*Ook-kan*).—Revenue circle in the Hlaing township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It is traversed from south to north by the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) Valley State Railway, with a station at Pouk-kún, about 2 miles east of Uk-kan village. On the east, in the vicinity of the Pegu Yomas, the country is hilly and forest-clad, producing teak and other valuable timber. The banks of the Hlaing river, forming the western boundary of the circle, are slightly raised above the level of the surrounding lands, and during the rains a small tract on the east is converted into an uncultivable swamp. The other river of the township is the UK-KAN. Pop. (1878), 7109; revenue, £2958.

Uk-kan.—River in the Uk-kan township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Rises in the Pegu Yoma range, and falls into the HLAING at Pyeng-ma-gún. A narrow stream, but navigable during the rains by large boats as far as Uk-kan village. Large quantities of teak and other timber are floated down the stream into the Hlaing.

Uk-kan.—Village in the circle of the same name in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated about 5 miles west of the Hlaing river. It contains two public rest-houses, a monastery, and two square-built pagodas. Uk-kan is said to have been founded about 300 years ago by a Talaing. Pop. (1878), 713.

Ul.—River of Oudh, rising in lat. 28° 21′ N., and long. 80° 27′ E., in Sháhjahánpur District of the North-Western Provinces; flows south by east, and, after a course of 7 miles, forms the boundary between the Districts of Sháhjahánpur and Kheri, till it enters the latter District in lat. 28° 22′ N., and long. 80° 28′ E. Flowing south-east through Kheri District, it joins the Chauka on its left bank in Sítápur District, in lat. 27° 42′ N., and long. 81° 13′ E. Total length, about 110 miles. The Ul is liable to great floods; cold-weather discharge at Lakhímpur, 30 feet per second. In places the channel is entirely dry, but during the rains the river becomes one-third of a mile broad and 10 feet deep in mid-channel. Not used for navigation, and of little service for irrigation, being below the level of the adjoining country; bridged on the road between Alíganj and Gola.

Ulá.—Town in Nadiyá District, Bengal.—*See* BIRNAGAR.

Ulá Kandí (or *Bhairab Bázár*).—Town in Maimansinh District, Bengal; situated on the Brahmaputra, just at the boundary junction of the three Districts of Dacca, Tipperah, and Maimansinh. The most important commercial mart of the District; large trade in jute; con-

siderable traffic carried on between Ulá Kandí and Náráinganj. Pop. (1872), 1500. The village contains a good school. Cattle market.

Ulubáriá.—Small town on the banks of the Húglí, in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 28′ N., long. 88° 9′ 15″ E.; 15 miles south of Howrah. It contains a subordinate judge's court, police station, and post office. Ulubáriá is the starting-place of the MIDNAPUR HIGH LEVEL CANAL (*q.v.*). The main road from Purí in Orissa crosses the Húglí at this village. Considerable boat traffic is carried on between Calcutta and Ulubáriá, and a small native ferry steamer also plies daily between the two places.

Ulvi.—Town in North Kánara District, Bombay, with a Lingáyat shrine in honour of Siva. A religious fair is held annually, at which nearly 5000 pilgrims assemble.

Ulwar (properly spelt *Alwar*).—State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Rájputána Agency and the Government of India. It was, in the early days of the East India Company, known as Machery (Machári), from a town of that name formerly the residence of the Ráo Rájás. Bounded on the north by the British District of Gurgáon, on the east by the State of Bhartpur, on the south and west by the State of Jáipur. Area, about 3000 square miles; pop. (1871), 778,596, of whom 180,225 were Musalmáns, 38 Christians, and the rest Hindus. Of agricultural castes, the Meos are by far the most numerous; of non-agricultural castes, Bráhmans and Baniyas (traders). The Rájputs are less numerous than any of the other important castes, and do not form 5 per cent. of the total population. The fort of Ulwar (lat. 27° 34′ 4″ N., long. 76° 38′ 28″ E.) is very picturesquely situated on a hill rising 1000 feet above the town. At the foot of the hill stands the Mahárájá's palace, a fine building, from the top of which a much admired view is obtained of the cenotaph and tank of Bakhtawar Sinh, with the rocks rising abruptly behind, and the cleft in the hill to the right. The hills extend in a succession of ranges many miles to the west and south-west, and abound in large game. The Bana Bilás palace is situated in a large garden about a mile from the town.

The present chief of Ulwar, Maháráo Rájá Mangal Sinh, was born about 1859, and succeeded in 1874. He had been under the guardianship of Pandit Manphul, C.S.I., formerly a distinguished official in the Punjab, and had also studied at the Mayo College at Ajmere. Originally Ulwar State consisted of petty chiefships, which till the middle of the last century owed allegiance to Jáipur and Bhartpur. The founder of the present family was Pratáp Sinh, a Naruka Rájput, who at first possessed but two villages and a half, Machári being one of them. During the minority of the Mahárájá of Jáipur, and while Játs, Mughals, and Marhattás were contending with each

other, he succeeded, between 1771 and 1776, in establishing independent power in the greater part of the territory which now forms the southern half of the State. In the war carried on by Mírzá Najíf Khán against the Játs, he united his forces at an opportune moment with those of the former, and aided him in defeating the enemy at Barsana and at Díg. As a reward for his services, he obtained the title of Ráo Rájá, and a *sanad* authorizing him to hold Machári direct. In 1776, he took advantage of the weakness of Bhartpur to wrest from the Játs the town and fort of Ulwar. His brethren of the Naruka clan of Rájputs then acknowledged him as their chief. He was succeeded by his adopted son, Bakhtawar Sinh, during whose time the country was overrun by the Marhattás. At the commencement of the Marhattá war of 1803-06, Bakhtawar Sinh allied himself with the British Government; and the famous battle of Laswári, in which Sindhia's forces were completely defeated by Lord Lake, was fought about 17 miles east of the town of Ulwar. After this campaign, the British Government conferred on Bakhtawar Sinh the northern Districts of the present State, and thereby raised his revenue from 7 to 10 *lákhs*. The new Districts lay in the tract well known in Delhi imperial history as Mewat.

In 1803, the chief of Ulwar accepted the protection of the British Government; and a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance was concluded, on the basis that Ulwar should pay no tribute, but that its troops should co-operate with the British Government when required. In 1811, it was found that intrigues threatening the independence of Jáipur were being carried on in Ulwar, with the connivance of the chief; and that the existing treaty approached too nearly to an equal alliance to allow of Government interference. A fresh engagement was therefore made, by which the Ráo Rájá was expressly prohibited from political intercourse with other States. In 1812, Bakhtawar Sinh took possession of the forts of Dhobi and Sikrawa, with adjoining territory belonging to Jáipur, and refused to restore them on the remonstrance of the Resident at Delhi. A British force was moved against him; but on its arrival within one march of his capital, Bakhtawar Sinh yielded, and restored the usurped territory. Bakhtawar Sinh was succeeded by his nephew and adopted son, Bani Sinh; but as he had also left an illegitimate son, Balwant Sinh, a dispute arose about the succession, and the British Government advised a suitable provision being made for Balwant Sinh. The advice was disregarded, and an attempt was made to murder Balwant Sinh's chief supporter when staying with the British Resident. Accordingly, after the capture of Bhartpur in January 1827, a force advanced towards Ulwar, and Bani Sinh was compelled to make over to Balwant Sinh the northern States, which in Lord Lake's time had been conferred upon his father. Balwant Sinh died

childless in 1845, and his possessions then reverted to Ulwar. Bani Sinh died in 1857, after the outbreak of the Mutiny. An Ulwar force was sent towards Agra to co-operate with the British forces, but it was headed by a traitor, who betrayed it to the rebels, and it was broken up.

Bani Sinh was succeeded by his son Sheodan Sinh, at that time thirteen years of age. The Muhammadan ministers obtained an ascendency over the young chief, which caused a rising of the Rájput nobles to expel them. On this, it was considered advisable to appoint a Political Agent at Ulwar, to advise and assist the council of regency during the young chief's minority. Soon after Sheodan Sinh's accession to power, the affairs of the State fell into confusion, and discontent was shown by insurrection. In 1870, a council of management, presided over by a British officer, was appointed, by whom the State was governed. Sheodan Sinh died in 1874, without any legitimate descendant, either lineal or adopted. It was considered advisable that a ruler should be selected from the collateral branches of the ruling family. The choice between those of strongest claims was left to the twelve Kotrís, as the Naruka families are called, and the selection fell upon Thakúr Mangal Sinh of the Thanna family, the present Maháráo Rájá. The chief of Ulwar enjoys the right of adoption, and is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. In 1866, an extradition treaty was concluded with Ulwar. British coin has been introduced into the State. In 1865, the Rájá agreed to give land required for railway purposes free of cost, and to compensate the owners. He also consented to cede full jurisdiction in such land, short of sovereign rights, to the British Government, and to surrender all transit and other duties on goods passing through. The Rájputána State Railway now runs through the State, nearly bisecting it from north to south. The line from Delhi joins the line from Agra to Jáipur at Bandkui Junction, which is just beyond the southern boundary of the State. Several roads are in course of construction as feeders to the railway.

The revenue of the State in 1875 was £232,918; expenditure, £193,628, not including liquidation of debts to the amount of 3 *lákhs* of rupees. Ulwar pays no tribute or contribution to local contingents. The Rájá maintains an army of 2000 cavalry, 5500 infantry, 10 field and 290 other guns, and 300 artillerymen.

Ulwar (*Alwar*).—Capital of the Native State of the same name, Rájputána; situated in lat. 27° 34′ 4″ N., and long. 76° 38′ 28″ E., nearly in the centre of the State. The city is protected by a rampart and a moat on all sides, except where the rocky hill range crowned by the fort secures it from attack. There are five gates, and the streets are well paved. The chief buildings within the city are—(1) the Rájá's palace; (2) the cenotaph of Maháráj á Bakhtawár Sinh;

(3) the temple of Jagannáth; (4) the court-house and revenue office; (5) an ancient tomb, called the *Tirpolia.* Just 1000 feet above the *Tirpolia* is the fort, containing a palace and other buildings, erected chiefly by the first two Naruka rulers of Ulwar. Its ramparts extend along the hill-top and across the valley for about 2 miles. It is said to have been built by Nikumpa Rájputs, and has undoubtedly been in the hands successively of Khánzádas, Mughals, Patháns, Játs, and Narukas. Below the fort are two important outworks, called respectively the *Chitanki* and the *Kábul Khurd.* The Lake of Siliserh, more than a mile in length, and about 400 yards in average width, is 9 miles south-west of the city; and to an aqueduct which brings its waters to Ulwar is due the beauty of the environs. The Banni Bilás palace and garden are famous for their picturesque situation. Major Powlett (*Gazetteer of Ulwar*, London, 1878) mentions many other interesting places of public resort in the neighbourhood of the city. The same authority states that in 1872 the population of the city and suburbs was 52,357; and that the most numerous classes are Bráhmans, Banias, and Chamárs.

Umánánda.—Small rocky island in the channel of the Brahmaputra, opposite the town of Gauhátí, Kámrúp District, Assam. It is a sacred site of pilgrimage, supposed to have been formed by the god Siva out of the dust with which he had marked his forehead.

Umarkher.—Chief town of a *parganá* of the same name in Básim District, Berar. Lat. 19° 36° N., long. 77° 45′ E.; pop. (1867), 5753. It has a police station, a dispensary, and a good school. An action was fought here in 1819 between the Hatkar chiefs and the Nizám's contingent. The *parganá* of Umarkher was formally ceded to the Peshwá by the Nizám after the battle of Kardla in 1795 A.D., though practically the former had held it since 1764 A.D. The Peshwá Bájí Ráo halted at Umarkher in 1818, on his flight eastward after the failure of his Poona *coup d'état.* A small but elaborately built temple, of late date, marks the site of the funeral pyre of a Bráhman, now known as Sádhu Maháráj. Gomúkh Swámi, a religious devotee, has a *math* or temple at Umarkher. During part of the year he travels about, attended by one servant, and collects large sums (popularly estimated at 2 *lákhs* per annum), which are expended on good works. He has built several temples and wells. People come from long distances to perform vows; and not many years since, 5000 people were being daily fed at the *math.* When the Swámi eats and drinks, which is only once a day, he stoops down, and, dispensing with the use of his hands, takes with his mouth the ball of meal and water, prepared for him by a Bráhman, from the floor freshly plastered with cow-dung.

Umarkot.—*Táluk* of the Thar and Párkar District, Sind. Area,

with Cháchra *táluk*, 1107 square miles; pop. (1872), 64,794. Total revenue (1873-74), £12,766.

Umarkot.—Chief town in the above *táluk*, Thar and Párkar District, Sind. Lat. 25° 21′ N., long. 69° 46′ E. It lies on the confines of the sandhills forming the Eastern desert; and a canal, known as the Umarkot branch, leading out from the Nára, now reaches the town, tailing off into a large tank. Umarkot has direct road communication with Haidarábád *viâ* Tando Alahyar and Mirpur Khás. It is the headquarters station of the Political Superintendent of the District, and of the *múkhtiárkár* of the *táluk*, and has a police *tháná* with 97 men. Civil and criminal courts, dispensary, Government schools, telegraph and post offices, *dharmsála*, and cattle pound. The town contains a fort about 500 feet square, the usual garrison of which, when in the possession of the Tálpur Mírs, was 400 men. At present the principal Government buildings are situate within this stronghold. Municipal income (1873-74), £969. The inhabitants number (1872) 3999, consisting of 3354 Hindus, 499 Muhammadans, and 146 'others.' Their chief employments are agriculture and cattle-breeding. The Hindus devote their attention also to trade, several of the Umarkot merchants being wealthy men. Local trade in grain, *ghí*, camels, cattle, and tobacco; transit trade in cotton, metals, dyes, dried fruits, *ghí*, grain, oil, piece-goods, wool, and tobacco. The manufactures are confined to the making of camel covers (or *naths*) and coarse cloths.

The town of Umarkot is said to have been founded by one Umar, a chief of the Súmra tribe, but at what date is not known. Its historical importance is due to its position on the main route from Hindustán to Sind. Here, in October 1542, was born Akbar, the son of Humáyún, the exiled Mughal Emperor, then on his way to Afghánistán. The presumed spot of Akbar's birth is marked by a stone slab, with an inscription. It was through this town that Akbar, when Emperor, marched in 1591 A.D. to conquer Sind. In 1813, Umarkot was captured by the Tálpur Mírs from the Rájá of Jodhpur, in whose possession it had been for some time; and after their downfall in 1843, it fell into the hands of the British.

Umarpur.—Town in Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 2′ 23″ N., long. 86° 57′ E.; pop. (1872), 3777. One of the chief collecting centres for the rice and Indian corn grown in the south of the District, and exported eastwards by way of Monghyr and Sultánganj. It contains a large tank with a mosque on its bank, ascribed to Prince Sháh Shujá. At Dumráon, about a mile north of Umarpur, are the remains of an old fort of Debí Rájá, within which the last Rájá fell fighting for independence against the Muhammadan invaders.

Umarsári.—Port in Surat District, Bombay; situated in lat. 20° 31′

N., and long. 72° 54′ E., on the north-western coast of the District, 4 miles west of Párdi. In 1874-75, the exports were valued at £12,772, and the imports at £1679.

Umat.—Village in the south of the Jáintia Hills, Assam.—*See* LA-KA-DONG.

Umattúr.—Village in Mysore District, Mysore. Lat. 12° 4′ 10″ N., long. 76° 56′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 1579. Formerly the capital of an important principality under the Vijayanagar kings, subdued by the Hindu Rájá of Mysore in 1613. Now an *inám* or revenue-free village, one of the endowments of the Chamrájnagar temple.

Umballa (*Ambálá*).—A Division under a Commissioner in the Punjab, comprising the three Districts of UMBALLA, LUDHIANA, and SIMLA, each of which see separately. Area of Umballa Division, 4007 square miles; pop. (1868), 1,652,728 persons, consisting of 933,148 Hindus, 499,002 Muhammadans, 152,263 Síkhs, 4310 Christians, and 64,005 'others.'

Umballa (properly spelt *Ambálá*).—A British District in the Lieut.-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 29° 49′ and 31′ 12′ N. lat., and between 76° 22′ and 77° 39′ E. long. Area, 2627 sq. miles; population in 1868, 1,035,488 souls. Umballa is the central District in the Division of the same name. It is bounded on the north-east by the Himálayas, on the north by the Sutlej, on the west by the Native State of Patiála and the District of Ludhiána, and on the south by the District of Karnál and the river Jumna. The administrative headquarters are at UMBALLA CITY.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Umballa forms a portion of the level plain intermediate between the Sutlej and the Indus, stretching along the foot of the Lower Himálayas. A strip of Patiála territory, jutting into the District from the south-west, separates it into two unequal portions, connected only by a narrow isthmus immediately below the hills. Towards the Himálayas, the frontier is comparatively simple, as the first upward undulation of the great range generally marks the limits of the British domain, beyond which lies the Native State of Náhan or Sírmúr. But at two points in its course our boundary projects into the hill country; once at its eastern extremity, on the bank of the Jumna, where a valuable upland timber forest lies within the British line; and again midway between the two rivers, nearly opposite the narrowest point, where our territory expands so as to include a large hill tract, known as the Kotaha *parganá*, and composed of two parallel ranges, the sources of the river Ghaggar. This mountainous region differs widely in its physical features and in the character of its inhabitants from the level plain at its foot. It is covered by the forest of Morni, in whose midst, enclosed by projecting spurs, lie two remarkable lakes. A hill divides them from one another, but some hidden communication

evidently exists between their basins, as the level of either is immediately affected by any withdrawal of water from its neighbour. The people regard them as sacred; and a ruined temple in honour of Krishna, which stands upon the bank of the larger lake, is the scene of a great annual festival. The village and fort of Morni lie considerably higher up the mountain-side. Below the hills, the face of the country assumes at once the appearance of a level plain. It has, however, a uniform slope toward the south-west; and near the hills its surface is broken at intervals by the beds of mountain torrents, which form the characteristic feature in the physical aspect of the District.

Besides the great boundary streams of the Sutlej and the Jumna, each of whose beds passes through the various stages of boulders, shingle, and sand, the District is traversed in every part by innumerable minor channels. The GHAGGAR rises in Náhan State, passes through the Kotaha *parganá*, crosses the District at its narrowest point, and enters Patiála almost immediately; but near the town of Umballa, it again touches on British territory, and skirts the border for a short distance. Its tributary, the SARSUTI, once according to tradition an important river, but now largely desiccated by irrigation channels and the silting up of dams, runs through the heart of the southern tract. Amongst other streams may be mentioned the Chutang, Tangri, Baliali, Markanda, Begana, Sukhia, and Sombh. The Western Jumna Canal takes its rise at Háthni Kúnd in this District (where the Jumna finally debouches from the hills on its western bank), and runs parallel with the lessened stream till it reaches the Karnál boundary. The Sirhind Canal, now under construction, also passes through a portion of Umballa. The aspect of the country is generally pleasing, the submontane tract being diversified by undulating slopes, while the plains are well wooded and abundantly interspersed with green mango groves. The neighbourhood of the hills, and the moisture imparted by the numerous torrents, give an air of freshness and beauty to the otherwise monotonous scenery. In clear weather, the Himálayas may be seen from any part of the District. Game abounds in all the wilder tracts, and beasts of prey are also common. The reward for killing a tiger or leopard is 30s.; for cubs, 6s.; and for a wolf, 10s.

History.—Umballa and its neighbourhood are intimately associated with the earliest dawn of Indian history. The strip of country included between the Sarsuti (Saraswatí) and the Ghaggar is the Holy Land of the Hindu faith, the first permanent home of the Aryans in India, and the spot where their religion took shape. Hence the sanctity of the Sarsuti even in modern times attracts the faithful, not only from neighbouring Districts, but even from Orissa and the remotest corners of Bengal. Its banks are everywhere lined with shrines, but the towns of Thanesar and Pihoia form the chief centres of attraction; and a tank

filled by the Sarsuti at the former place is annually bathed in by some 300,000 persons. The country teems with traditions of the great conflict between the Pándavas and the Kauravas, whose exploits are detailed in the *Mahábhárata*. But the earliest authentic information which we possess with reference to this District is derived from the *Itinerary* of Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim of the 7th century. He found it the seat of a flourishing and civilised kingdom, having its capital at Srugna, a town identified by General Cunningham with the modern village of Sugh. The evidence of coins found on the spot in great abundance shows that Srugna continued to be occupied down to the time of the Muhammadan conquest.

The country about Umballa, like the rest of Upper India, fell to the successive dynasties of Ghazní and Ghor, but has no special mention in the records of the conquest. About the middle of the 14th century, the Emperor Fíroz Sháh constructed a canal to supply the town of Hissár, which probably coincided in the main with the present Western Jumna Canal. Under Akbar, Umballa District formed part of the *Subah* of Sirhind. But the practical interest of the local annals begins with the rise of the Síkh principalities south of the Sutlej during the latter half of the 18th century. As the central power of the Empire relaxed under the blows of the Marhattás on the one side, and the Afgháns on the other, numerous Síkh marauders from the Punjab proper began to extend their encroachments beyond the Sutlej, and ere long acquired for themselves the heart of the country between that river and the Jumna. When the Marhattá supremacy fell before the British in 1803, the whole tract was parcelled out among chiefs of various grades, from the powerful Rájás of Patiála, Jhínd, and Nábha down to the petty *sardár*, who had succeeded in securing by violence or fraud the possession of a few villages. But after Ranjít Sinh began to consolidate the Síkh territories within the Punjab, he crossed the Sutlej in 1808, and demanded tribute from the cis-Sutlej chieftains.

Thus pressed, and fearing for themselves the fate which had overtaken their brethren, the Síkh princes combined to apply for aid to the British Government. The responsibility of protecting the minor States from their powerful neighbour was accepted by the British, and the treaty of 1809, between our Government and Ranjít Sinh, secured them in future from encroachment on the north. Internal wars were strictly prohibited by a proclamation issued in 1811; but with this exception the powers and privileges of the chiefs remained untouched. Each native ruler, great or small, had civil, criminal, and fiscal jurisdiction within his own territory, subject only to the controlling authority of the Governor-General's Agent at Umballa. No tribute was taken, nor was any special contingent demanded, although the Rájás were bound in case of war to give active aid to the Government. The right to

escheats was the sole return which we asked for our protection. The first Síkh war and the Sutlej campaign of 1845 gave Government an opportunity for testing the gratitude of the chieftains. Few of them, however, displayed their loyalty more conspicuously than by abstaining from open rebellion. Their previous conduct had not been such as to encourage Government in its policy towards them, while their mismanagement was amply testified by the universal satisfaction with which the peasantry of lapsed principalities accepted the British rule.

A sweeping measure of reform was accordingly introduced, for the reduction of the privileges enjoyed by the Síkh chieftains. The Political Agency of Umballa was transformed into a Commissionership, and the police jurisdiction was handed over to European officers. In June 1849, after the second Síkh war had brought the Punjab under our rule, the chiefs were finally deprived of all sovereign power. The revenues were still to be theirs, but the assessments were to be made by British officials and under British regulations. Even previous to this arrangement, portions of the modern District had lapsed to Government by death or forfeiture; and the reforms of 1849 brought Umballa nearly to its present proportions. During the Mutiny of 1857, although incendiary fires and other disturbances gave much ground for alarm, especially at the first beginning of disaffection, no actual outbreak occurred, and the District was held throughout with little difficulty. In 1862, the dismemberment of Thanesar District brought three new *parganás* to Umballa; and four years later, another exchange of territory finally gave it the existing area and boundaries.

Population.—In 1854, the population of Umballa, including those portions of Thanesar which have since been incorporated with this District, amounted to 957,078 souls. In 1868, it had risen to 1,008,866, showing an increase of 51,787, or 5·41 per cent. These figures do not include the population of the cantonments, which fluctuates much from year to year. The Census of 1868 was taken over an area of 2627 square miles, and it disclosed a total of 1,035,488 persons, distributed among 2324 villages or townships and 243,302 houses. From these figures, the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 394; villages per square mile, 0·88; houses per square mile, 92·81; persons per village, 445; persons per house, 4·25. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 567,930; females, 467,558; proportion of males, 54·85 per cent. The preponderance of the stronger sex was at one time much greater, amounting in 1854 to 56·32 per cent.; there has therefore been an increase of nearly 1½ per cent. in the number of females, as compared with males, which affords just ground for the belief that infanticide, if not actually suppressed, has largely decreased. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—boys, 191,639; girls, 160,315; total children,

351,954, or 33·98 per cent. of the population. As regards religious distinctions, Hindus numbered 689,333; Muhammadans, 286,874; Síkhs, 56,440; Christians and 'others,' 2841. The percentages of each religion in the total population were as follows:—Hindus, 66·57; Muhammadans, 27·70; Síkhs, 5·45; Christians and 'others,' 0·27. Among the various races of the District, the Játs rank first in number, with a total of 175,335, of whom 161,967 are Hindus or Síkhs and 13,368 Musalmáns. In the northern *parganás* they form the chief proprietary body, and keep up their usual reputation for industry and frugality. The Chamárs come next, with 125,638, all Hindus. Pottery is the hereditary handicraft of this caste, but its members may be found in all menial positions, as the lowest social grade of the District. The Rájputs, once the leading landowning tribe, still possess many small estates, but are careless and unsystematic cultivators, generally poor and involved in debt. Out of a total of 82,987 members of this caste, 20,121 are Hindus and 62,866 Muhammadans. The Bráhmans number 63,740, and follow their customary avocations, as priests, agriculturists, shopkeepers, and domestic servants. The Gujars (48,695) are almost equally divided between Hinduism and Islám. As elsewhere, they are fonder of cattle-breeding than of agriculture, and show the ancestral tendency towards a wild, lawless life. The other leading tribes are the Banias (39,093), Kambohs (9847), Sayyids (8490), Khattris (7893), and Patháns (7377). The inhabitants of the Kotaha *parganá*, in the hill country, are a simple quiet race, clinging almost without exception to the Hindu faith of their forefathers, deeply devoted to their homes, and seldom visiting the plains. Proprietary right is kept up amongst them with more than Indian tenacity; a family may be absent for a hundred years, yet their name will be held in remembrance, and their descendants may return at any time to reclaim their possessions without a remonstrance. The places of pilgrimage in the District are very numerous. Along the Sarsuti, the whole year round, there is a constant succession of festivals at one shrine or another; and religious fairs are held at many other towns scattered about the country. The total agricultural population amounted in 1868 to 469,928 persons. The Census of that date returned 9 towns with a population exceeding 5000 souls, namely—UMBALLA CITY, 24,037; UMBALLA CANTONMENT, 26,659; BURIA, 8351; JAGADHRI, 11,676; RUPAR, 8700; MANI MAJRA, 6045; SADHAURA, 11,198; THANESAR, 7929; and SHAHABAD, 11,678. These figures show an urban population of 116,273 persons, or 11·2 per cent. of the total population of the District.

Agriculture.—The cultivated area of Umballa District amounts in all to 945,526 acres, leaving 736,404 acres uncultivated, of which 283,989 are returned as cultivable. The staple crops are wheat, barley, and

gram for the spring harvest; with rice, *joár*, *bájra*, Indian corn, *moth*, cotton, and sugar-cane for the autumn harvest. Poppy, tobacco, and hemp are also grown, but only in quantities sufficient for home consumption. The area under each staple in 1872-73 was as follows:—Wheat, 345,491 acres; barley, 54,476; gram, 159,617; rice, 120,653; *joár*, 127,623; *bájra*, 24,704; Indian corn, 140,381; cotton, 40,350; sugar-cane, 26,118 acres. The quality of the crops is steadily improving, the higher cereals, tobacco, cotton, and sugar-cane being largely substituted for inferior food grains, such as millets and pulses. This improvement is the result of an increase in material prosperity, enabling the peasantry to incur a larger outlay upon their farms. Manure is used to a slight extent in the neighbourhood of villages, and rotation of crops is so far understood that the same staple is seldom sown on a single plot for two years in succession; but the land is incessantly cultivated year after year, never lying fallow for more than six months at a time. The average out-turn of produce per acre is returned as follows:—Rice, 800 lbs.; cotton, 350 lbs.; sugar, 300 lbs.; wheat, 1020 lbs.; inferior grains, 376 lbs. Irrigation is practised on 131,682 acres, part of which is supplied with water from the Western Jumna Canal, while the remainder is irrigated from wells worked with a Persian wheel or a hand-lever. Near the hills, water lies so close to the surface that it may be obtained in the river beds by scratching away a little of the earth; in the upland plain, however, at a distance from the mountains, many villages do not possess a well, even for drinking purposes, but depend entirely for water supply on the surface drainage collected in tanks. Where irrigation is not available, no spring crop can be grown.

The condition of the people is generally comfortable, and they are seldom in debt to any great extent; but near the larger towns, the peasantry have become accustomed to a better style of living, which often induces them to exceed their means, especially in the matter of dress and personal decoration. All the villages, except quite an insignificant number, are in the hands of cultivating communities. The *jágírdárs*, or persons holding assignments of revenue for particular estates, are naturally very numerous, owing to the historical origin of their tenure. They include the families of all the chiefs whose powers were reduced in 1849, and in most cases they are Síkhs by religion. Another peculiar tenure of the District is that known as *chaháram*, which took its rise from a common custom of the cis-Sutlej Síkhs, when struggling with the native proprietors for the possession of a particular village, to compromise the matter by assigning half the revenue to each of the contending parties. Most of the tenants have rights of occupancy. Rents ruled as follows in 1871-72, according to the nature of the crop for which the soil was suited:—Rice, from

6s. to £1, 6s. per acre; cotton, from 6s. to £1, 4s. 6d.; sugar, from 10s. to £2; wheat, from 8s. 9d. to £1, 12s. Wages in kind remain stationary, but money wages and prices have doubled within the last few years. In 1873, agricultural labourers received from 3¾d. to 4½d. per diem; while artisans obtained from 4½d. to 9d. per diem. The following were the prices of food grains in 1873:—Wheat, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; barley, 32 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.; gram and Indian corn, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.; *joár*, 27 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 2d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 26 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 4d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Umballa suffers, like the neighbouring Districts, from the effects of drought. In 1860-61, it shared the famine which desolated the surrounding country. The autumn rains of 1860 failed utterly, and the rain crop withered in the ground. So great was the heat that even the jungle tracts produced no grass, and the cattle died off by thousands. A sprinkling of rain fell in December, but did not prove sufficient for the spring sowings; and the *rabí* crops also failed completely, except where means existed for artificial irrigation. Wheat rose to 8 *sers* per rupee (14s. per cwt.), and the mortality from disease and hunger began to be serious. Refugees from Bíkaner and Hariána flocked into the District, as usual on such occasions, and augmented the local distress. The dearth continued to be felt throughout the summer, until the ripening of the autumn harvest, which fortunately turned out to be exceptionally good. The year 1869-70 was elsewhere one of famine, but the distress did not reach Umballa, where a moderate harvest was gathered in. Relief was necessarily provided for the starving poor from Bíkaner, Hissár, and Sírsa, but charity was not required by the inhabitants of the District themselves. Local subscriptions sufficed for all demands.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Umballa being mainly an agricultural District, has little trade or manufactures deserving special notice. Small articles of iron-work are made at Rúpar, carpets at Umballa, and coarse country cloth in every village. The principal centres of trade are Umballa, Rúpar, Jagádhri, Khizrábád, Buria, and Kharar. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway traverses the District for a length of 42 miles, entering it by a bridge across the Jumna, a few miles south of Jagádhri, and leaving it by another across the Ghaggar, 6 miles west of Umballa city. There are stations at the city and cantonments, at Barára, and at Jagádhri. The Grand Trunk Road also passes through the whole southern region. In 1873, the aggregate length of roads in the District amounted to 547 miles, of which 121 miles were metalled. There are 3 printing presses in Umballa, and the *Mofussilite* newspaper is published twice a week.

Administration.—The administrative staff ordinarily includes a

Deputy Commissioner, 3 Assistant and 2 Extra-Assistant Commissioners, besides the usual medical, fiscal, and constabulary officials. In 1872-73, the revenue of the District from all sources amounted to £102,024, of which sum £74,827, or nearly three-fourths, was derived from the land tax. The other principal items are stamps and local rates. The imperial police in 1873 numbered 762 officers and men, who were supplemented by the following special bodies:—Municipal police, 153; cantonment police, 129; and ferry police, 11. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property amounted to 1055 officers and men, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 2·49 square miles and to every 892 of the population. A special jail guard of 139 men at Rúpar, and a similar body of 17 men on the Sirhind Canal, who are not engaged on the ordinary protective work of the District, have been omitted from the calculation. The District contains 2 prisons, one at Umballa, the other at Rúpar. The former is the divisional jail, and its inmates are the local criminals of the District and Division. In 1872, it had a total of 1453 prisoners, and a daily average of 650. The Rúpar jail is a depôt to which convicts are brought from other Districts to be employed upon the canal works. It contained in 1872 a total of 990 prisoners, and a daily average of 491. Education was carried on in 1872 by 176 schools, with an aggregate roll of 6872 pupils, at a total cost of £3192. Umballa also contains an Institution for Government Wards, who in this District are necessarily numerous, owing to the large number of *jágírdár* families. The institution had 11 pupils in 1873. It is hoped that great good has already been effected by thus bringing the sons of influential Síkh gentlemen in constant contact with European opinion. For fiscal and administrative purposes, Umballa is divided into 6 *tahsíls* and 15 *parganás*, with a total of 2324 villages, owned by 100,809 proprietors or coparceners; average land revenue from each proprietor, 14s. 10d. The District includes one second-class municipality, Umballa, besides 10 of the third-class, namely, Jagádhri, Sádhaura, Rúpar, Buria, Thanesar, Sháhábád, Kharar, Pihoia, Radaur, and Ladwa. In 1875-76, their aggregate municipal revenue amounted to £5810, and their expenditure to £5983; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 1⅝d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Sanitary Aspects.—The yearly rainfall for the six years ending in 1872 averaged 32·3 inches. Fever is the most prevalent disease of the District; but bowel complaints carry off a large number of persons annually, and small-pox occasionally appears in a violent epidemic form. Goitre and cretinism are extremely common on the banks of the Ghaggar, where diseases of the spleen also affect a very great proportion of the inhabitants. The villages along its course are exceedingly unhealthy and much under-populated. Blindness prevails

in Umballa to a greater extent than in any other part of the Punjab. The average of blind persons for the District is 1 in every 126 inhabitants, as compared with 1 in 1037 in England. The total number of deaths from all causes reported in 1872 was 23,385, or 23 per thousand of the population. The District contains 4 Government dispensaries, which afforded relief in 1872 to a total of 47,886 patients.

Umballa.—A *tahsíl* of Umballa District, Punjab.

Umballa (*Ambálá*).—City and cantonment in Umballa District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 21′ 25″ N., long. 76° 52′ 14″ E. Headquarters of District, situated on an open plain 1040 feet above the sea, and 3 miles east of the river Ghaggar. Population in 1868—city, 24,037; cantonments, 26,659; total, 50,696, consisting of 27,008 Hindus, 19,570 Muhammadans, 1235 Síkhs, 1362 Christians, and 1521 'others.' Founded probably in the 14th century by an Amba Rájput, from whom it derives its name, but of little importance before the British occupation. In 1809, when the cis-Sutlej States came under British protection, Umballa was held by Daya Kaur, widow of Sardár Gurbaksh Sinh, its Síkh possessor. Daya Kaur had been ejected by Ranjít Sinh in 1808, but reinstated by General Ochterlony. On her death in 1823, the principality lapsed to the British Government, and the town was fixed upon as the residence of the Political Agent for the cis-Sutlej States. In 1843, a cantonment was established a few miles south of the city. In 1849, the Punjab came under British rule, and the city was made the headquarters of UMBALLA DISTRICT. In March 1869, a grand Darbár was held at Umballa, on the occasion of the visit of the Amír Sher Alí of Afghánistán to Lord Mayo. In the old part of the town, the narrow, dark, and tortuous streets will scarcely allow the passage of a single elephant; but the newer portion which has sprung up in the direction of the cantonments consists of fine open roads, well laid out.

The water supply is very insufficient, and schemes are under consideration for its improvement. The cantonments lie 4 miles to the south-east of the city, and were formed in 1843. They now cover 7220 acres. The ordinary complement of the garrison comprises 3 batteries of artillery, 1 regiment of European, and 1 of Native cavalry, besides 1 regiment each of European and Native infantry. The centre of the cantonments is laid out with good metalled roads, often shaded by lines of fine old *pípal* trees. The church is considered the handsomest in the Punjab. There are also a club-house, 3 hotels, and staging bungalow. The civil station lies between the city and cantonments, and contains the usual District offices, a court-house and treasury, a jail, and a dispensary, besides the Government Wards' Institution. Umballa is well situated for commercial purposes, midway between the rivers Jumna and the Sutlej, at the point where the Punjab and Delhi Railway intersects the Grand Trunk Road. Its importance

is enhanced by the fact that it is the nearest station on the railway to the summer resort of the Government at Simla. Owing to this circumstance, the Umballa Cantonments have a larger number of English shops than any town in the Punjab, except Simla itself. The city is a great grain mart for the produce of the District and the independent States to the west. It also carries on a considerable trade in hill products, ginger, and turmeric. Chief exports—cotton goods, grain, and carpets; imports—English cloth and iron, salt, wool, and silk. Umballa city has been constituted a second-class municipality: revenue in 1875-76, £1644; expenditure, £1964; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 3d. per head of population (26,274) within municipal limits. Distance from Calcutta, 1020 miles north-west; from Karnál, 55 miles north; from Ludhiána, 69 miles south-east.

Umbargám.—Port in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay; situated in lat. 20° 11′ 55″ N., and long. 72° 47′ 40″ E., on the west coast, 60 miles due north of Bassein. The average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74 is returned at £2909 for imports, and £11,402 for exports.

Umeta.—Native State in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 36½ square miles. The present chief is named Baria Háthi Sinhjí. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £2930; and tribute is paid of £500 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Umrapur.—Native State in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 2 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £1600; and tribute is paid of £51 to the British Government.

Umrer.—The south-eastern *tahsíl* or revenue Subdivision of Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 114,442, on an area of 1025 square miles, residing in 442 villages or townships and 22,706 houses.

Umrer.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 18′ N., long. 79° 21′ E.; 28 miles south-east of Nágpur city. Built on light sandy soil on the north bank of the river Amb, and bordered on the east by beautiful mango groves. Pop. (1872), 11,394. Umrer was founded towards the close of the 17th century by Munájí Pandit, from Chimúr, to whom the site then covered with jungle was granted by Bakht Buland, and whose descendant, the present landholder, still retains the title of *despándyá.* In 1775, Madhují Bhonslá resided at Umrer, and built the fort. It was originally a narrow rectangle, 300 yards long and 80 broad, with walls of massive brickwork, 12 feet thick at the base and 35 high, flanked with bastions. Only two sides now remain. The fort contains several wells, besides the ruins of an old temple made of large pillars roughly hewn, and covered over with huge slabs of stone without mortar. From Madhují's

time dates the cloth manufacture, for which the town is famous. The Umrer *dhotís* consist of very fine cotton cloth, with embroidered silk borders from an inch to a foot and a half wide. They are exported to Poona, Násik, Pandharpur in the Deccan, and even to Bombay. Of late years, the town has been much improved. Three and a half miles of good road have been constructed through it, and a handsome school-house and dispensary built. The central market has an open space 70 yards square, well planted with young trees, and metalled throughout. Two large tanks have been excavated, one on each side of the town; and of the numerous wells, many supply excellent water.

Umreth.—Town in Kaira District, Bombay, and a station on the Anand-Dákor branch of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway; situated 14 miles north-east of Anand and 5 miles south by west of Dákor Umreth, in lat. 22° 41′ N., and long. 73° 11′ E. Pop. (1872), 13,954. One of the most populous and wealthy towns in Kaira District. Sub-judge's court and post office.

Umri.—A Native State in the Goona Agency, under the Central India Agency. The Rájá, Mokum Sinh, is in his dotage (1876), and the management of affairs is conducted by his eldest son, Randhir Sinh. Chief town, Umri. Lat. 24° 45′ N., long. 77° 22′ E.

Umrí.—Chiefship in Bhandára District, Central Provinces, 4 miles west of the great Nawegáon Lake; comprising 10 villages, on an area of 17 square miles, of which one-eighth is cultivated. The grant was made on a service tenure to the ancestor of the present chief, who is a Halbá. Lat. (centre) 20° 46′ N., long. 79° 46′ E.

Una.—Town in Junágarh State, Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 20° 49′ N., long. 71° 5′ E.; pop. (1872), 7056.

Uná.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Hoshiárpur District, Punjab; comprising the mountain valley enclosed by the Siwálik Hills and the outer Himálayan chain. This valley, known as the Jaswan Dún, is traversed throughout by the Sohán river, and entered by the Sutlej (Satlaj) near its southern extremity. Area, 630 square miles; pop. (1868), 212,016; number of townships, 531; persons per square mile, 336.

Uná. — Town in Hoshiárpur District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; situated in lat. 31° 32′ N., and long. 76° 18′ E., about the centre of the Jaswan Dún; elevation above sea level, 1404 feet. Pop. (1868), 4379. Derives its chief importance from the residence of a branch of the Bedi family, descendants of Bába Nának, the founder of the Síkh religion. Under Ranjít Sinh, the family, represented by Bedi Bikráma Sinh, held large grants of land in the surrounding valley and elsewhere. Bikráma Sinh headed a rising at the time of the second Síkh war, in 1848 (*see* HOSHIARPUR DISTRICT), and thus forfeited his estates. His family still reside in the town.

Municipal revenue (1875-76), £106, or 5⅛d. per head of population (4908) within municipal limits.

Unao.—A British District in the Lucknow Division or Commissionership of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; situated between 26° 8′ and 27° 2′ N. lat., and between 80° 6′ and 81° 5′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Hardoi, on the east by Lucknow, on the south-east by Rái Bareli, and on the south and south-west by Fatehpur and Cawnpore Districts in the North-Western Provinces, the river Ganges marking the boundary line. Unao District has recently undergone considerable changes of area, by the transfer in 1869 of one *parganá* from Lucknow and of seven from Rái Bareli District. Prior to those changes, the District contained an area of 1349 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1869, of 724,949 souls. The effect of the transfers has been to augment the area (according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1877-78) to 1736 square miles, and the population to 944,793 souls. The administrative headquarters are at UNAO TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Except where the country falls as it approaches the Ganges, a uniform dead level prevails; rich and fertile tracts, studded with groves, alternate with stretches of waste land and plains of barren *usár*, the whole intersected by small streams. Natural objects of interest or beauty are entirely wanting. The richest tracts, where the best and most valuable crops are produced, lie chiefly in the centre of the District, in *parganás* Purwá, Harha, Unao, Jhalotar, and Asíwán. The predominant soils are good loam and clay; water for irrigating purposes is generally procurable from tanks and wells. The inferior tracts are found in the outer *parganás* of Safipur, Bángarmau, Asoha, etc., running generally in a narrow belt round the District from 1 to 6 miles in width, the prevailing soil being inferior loam and sand.

The only navigable river is the Ganges, which forms the western and south-western boundary of Unao. It is not, however, utilized much either as a highway for conveyance of local produce, or for irrigation purposes. There are several minor streams either bordering on or passing through the District, and the water which they contain during a greater part of the year is extensively used for irrigation, the flow being equalized by numerous earthen dams. The rules under which these dams are maintained and regulated are carefully recorded in the administration papers of the different villages. In a dry season, water becomes so valuable, that unless rules were distinctly laid down and agreed to by all, these dams would be a never-ending source of dispute and quarrel. The principal of these smaller rivers are as follow:—The Sái rises in Hardoi District, enters Unao at Sultánpur, and after skirting the entire northern boundary, leaves the District at Rámpur, and passes into Rái Bareli. It contains

water throughout the year, but is fordable everywhere except during or immediately after floods. It is bridged at all the main roads. The Kalyáni also rises in Hardoi, enters Unao at Lahramau, and after passing through Fatehpur and Bángarmau *parganás*, falls into the Ganges at Maraunda; easily fordable at all seasons. The Tinái rises in a marsh or *jhíl* at Asíwán, and intersects Asíwán and Pariar *parganás*. It contains water all the year round, but, the banks being high and steep, the cost of raising the water to the fields precludes its being much used for irrigation. The Loni is a small stream which takes its rise in a tank in Unao *parganá*, and flows in a south-easterly direction into Rái Bareli. It does not hold water for any length of time, but is noted for the fine crops of rice grown in its bed and along its banks in the autumn. In October, the river may be traced for miles by the brilliant green which marks its course. A canal, constructed by Nawáb Nasír-ud-dín Haidar, traverses the north-western portion of Bángarmau *parganá*, and joins the river Sái at Kursat. The original idea was to connect the Ganges and the Gumti; but the levels were so badly taken, and the grant of money so misappropriated, that it was never carried out, and the canal has only been productive of harm. It draws off all the water from the adjacent villages in the rains, thus not merely depriving the land of the water which would otherwise fertilize it, but causing a continual cutting away of the neighbouring fields. The District contains several large marshes and sheets of water (*jhíls*). The chief are found in *parganás* Jhalotár, Ajgain, Parsandan, Unao, and the northern parts of Harha and Mauránwán. They contain water all the year round, and afford ample facilities for irrigation to the neighbouring villages. In the Samundar Tál at Jhalotár, and the Jalesar and Bas-aha Tál in Parsandan and Harha, fish abound, and the water-nut (*singhára*) is extensively grown.

History.—Of the races inhabiting the country previous to the Rájput colonization, very little is known. According to local tradition, Mauránwán, Purwá, and the northern part of Harha was occupied by the Bhars, and the rest of the District by low-caste tribes of Lodhs, Ahírs, Thatheras, etc. These all appear to have been pastoral people, herding their cattle in the forests which then covered the country, and raising a scanty crop of grain in the cleared patches of land about their villages. The Rájput colonizers may be divided into the descendants of two classes—first, those who, after their defeat by the Muhammadans under the Ghoris in Upper India, fled across the Ganges into the then almost unknown country of Ajodhya (Oudh), rather than remain servants where they had hitherto ruled as masters. The second class are those who, as time went on, entered the service of the Delhi Emperor, and acquired tracts of country either by direct grant or by the sword. Of the first class, the Chauháns, Dikhits, Raikwárs, Janwárs, and Gautamas are the

chief, having effected their settlement between 1200 and 1450 A.D. Of the second class, the principal are the Sengúrs, Gehlots, Gaurs, and Parihárs, whose colonization dates from 1415 to 1700 A.D. The first invasion of Oudh by the Muhammadans occurred about 1030 A.D. under Sayyid Sálár Masáúd, nephew of Mahmúd of Ghazní; but the expedition was most disastrous to the invaders. Along the route taken by the army, the graves of Sayyid Sálár's followers are still pointed out in this District, but principally at Bári *tháná* and Asíwán; in the latter place, the *ganj* built close to these tombs still bears the name of the Martyr's Market. The earliest regular Musálman settlement in Unao dates from the end of the 13th or beginning of the 14th century. Tradition relates that a saint, Sayyid Alá-ud-dín, coming from Kanauj, where numbers of the conquering Muhammadans had settled after its fall, to take up his residence at Newál, was not permitted to do so by the Rájá of the place, Newál Sinh, who turned the Sayyid out of his territory. The saint in his anger cursed him and all his people for their inhospitality, and as a punishment turned the town upside down and destroyed the inhabitants. After this, the Sayyid founded the town of Bángarmau at a short distance from Newál. The shrine built over his grave bears date 1302 A.D. The next Musálman conquest was that of Safipur, about 1425, and this was succeeded about twenty-five years later by the capture of Unao from the Bisens.

The event is thus related by Mr. C. A. Elliott in his *Chronicles of Unao*, pp. 93-95: 'Sayyid Bahá-ud-dín, son of Sayyid Alá-ud-dín, who was killed at the taking of Safipur, was the conqueror of the Bisens of Unao, and the founder of the Muhammadan family who have large estates in that *parganá*. They are Zaidi Sayyids from Wasia, and relate of themselves that they are descended from one Sayyid Abdul Farah of Wasia, whom political troubles forced to quit his country and to flee into Hindustán. From him are descended the most renowned Musalmán families in Northern India, the Barhah and Bílgrám Sayyids; and in Khairábád, Fatehpur, Haswa, and many other places, branches of the same stem are found. A young scion of this race, by name Bahá-ud-dín, had fallen in the taking of Kanauj by Sháhab-ud-dín Ghori (1193 A.D.); and it was said that he was slain by the hand of a Bisen Rájá of Unao, who, as vassal to the Rájá of Kanauj, had come to do him military service in that battle. Other members of the Sayyid family had taken up their abodes in Kanauj, and it was from here that the Alá-ud-dín above alluded to had proceeded to join the Jaunpur force in assisting which he met his death. The conquest of Safipur having proved so easy, the spirit of further acquisition was awakened; and Bahá-ud-dín set out, about 1450 A.D., at the head of a party of his relations, with the view at once to avenge their old blood feud with the Bisens, and to annex a valuable estate. They went craftily about their design, and

represented themselves as horse-dealers. Their Persian and Kábulí studs were much valued in a country which produces nothing bigger than ponies; and the Rájá was easily induced to buy so large a number of horses from them that he was unable to pay in ready money, and was obliged to make over to them a portion of the estate, out of the profits of which they might gradually repay themselves. This was what was wanted to enable them to get a footing in the country. They sent for their families, and along with them obtained the assistance of several more of their party, who came under the pretence of escorting the women. Their arrival was timed so as to synchronize with the celebration of a marriage in the Rájá's family; and before their increased numbers could spread abroad any suspicion of their intentions, they obtained the Rájá's permission for their wives to enter the fort in order to visit his wife and congratulate her on the happy event. In each of the covered litters, which were supposed to contain the women, an armed man was concealed, and arms were hidden about the bearers of the litters. The fort was open to all comers, and its defenders were off their guard, and most of them intoxicated, when the Sayyids, throwing off their disguise, fell on the unsuspecting Bisens and slaughtered every man within the fort. Only one son of the Rájá escaped the massacre. He was out hunting when it occurred, and fled to his kin at Mánikpur. The Rájá of that place took up his quarrel, and sent a force to reinstate him, but was defeated at Ráithan and again at Kwelaghára. The Sayyids, however, did not win the victory without great loss on their side, and felt that they could not long afford to continue such a combat. At this time the great Báis Rájá, Tilok Chánd, was enjoying undisputed supremacy over the whole Rájput community of the south of Oudh. But the defeat he had experienced at the hands of the Malihábád Patháns had probably taught him that these new invaders were dangerous to meddle with. In token of respect and submission, the Sayyids sent a present to him, which after some deliberation he accepted, answering those who wished him to assist his brother Rájputs by the argument that the Sayyids had taken Unao in pursuance of a blood feud which it was their duty to prosecute; and he swore not to attack them nor to suffer any other Rájput to do so. They were to keep the Unao *parganá* as their own *zamíndárí*, and charcoal was buried in the village of Kwelaghára to mark the boundary. The Delhi King, on hearing of the success of the Sayyids, gave them a *sanad* for the *zamíndárí*, and made them *chaudharís* of the *parganá* on the condition that they should sound the *azán* or call to prayers five times a day, that after each prayer they should shoot off ten arrows from the *masjíd*, and that they should accompany the *faujdár* or chief Government official whenever he went to fight any rebel in Báiswára.'

During the Sepoy Rebellion of 1857-58, the people of Unao joined the mutineers, and for a time the District was completely lost to us. In the operations connected with the relief of Lucknow, several severely contested engagements were fought in Unao between General Havelock's little army and the rebels. The head of the Janwár family and owner of large estates in the District, Rájá Jasa Sinh, was one of the first leading men to turn against us. He seized and sent to the Nána at Cawnpore the fugitives from Fatehgarh, and his followers were prominent in opposing General Havelock's forces. He was wounded in the hand in one of the battles, from the effects of which he died. One of his sons was afterwards hanged, and the other became a fugitive. The whole family estates were confiscated, and the villages either restored to their original owners, from whom they had been taken by fraud or force, or given to other landholders as a reward for loyal services.

Population.—The population of Unao District, according to the Census of 1869, but after the transfers mentioned above, is returned at 944,793 persons, residing in 1754 villages or towns and 190,262 houses; average density of the population, 544 per square mile. Classified according to sex, there are 483,481 males and 461,312 females; proportion of males, 51·17 per cent. Classified according to religion, there are 882,917 Hindus, 61,841 Muhammadans, and 35 Christians. Bráhmans form the most numerous section of the population, numbering 148,321. The other higher Hindu castes are Rájputs, 84,846; Vaisyas, 17,730; and Káyasths, 11,395. The most numerous of the lower caste Hindus are as follow:—Ahírs, milkmen and cultivators, 86,087; Chamárs, tanners and leather-sellers, 85,230; Lodhs, cultivators, 83,118; Pásis, village watchmen and cultivators, 55,139; Muráos, vegetable sellers, 35,683; Korís, weavers, 24,552; Náos, barbers, 22,430; Gararias, shepherds, 22,312; Telís, oilmen, 18,408; Kúrmís, cultivators, 17,791; Dhobís, washermen, 13,670; Barháis, carpenters, 13,107; Málás, boatmen, 12,436; Kumbhárs, potters, 10,944; and Kahárs, palanquin-bearers, 10,763. The most important sections of the Muhammadans are Patháns (12,880) and Shaikhs (8121). Sayyids number 2281. The other classes of Muhammadans are converts from Hindu low-castes, and are designated according to the occupations they follow. The most numerous are Dhuniás or cotton-cleaners, who number 8863, and Darzís or tailors, 4686. Unao is essentially a rural District, and has only 7 towns with a population exceeding 5000, viz.—UNAO, the headquarters of the District, pop. (1869), 5376; MAURANWAN, 7460; BANGARMAU, 7266; SAFIPUR, 6630; PURWA, 6383; HARHA, 5490; and ASIWAN, 5817.

Agriculture.—The following descriptions of soil prevail in the District:—*Dumat* (loam), which comprises 59 per cent. of the total area; *matiár*

(clay), 18 per cent.; and *bhúr* (sand), 23 per cent. The barren tracts extending through the central *parganás* form in their waste and desolate aspect a marked contrast to the rich tracts among which they are mingled. Nothing grows upon them except the stunted *bábul* (Acacia arabica), and a scanty pasture for cattle, which springs up in the rainy months, but soon withers. The ordinary harvests of the District are the same as those described in the article on PARTABGARH DISTRICT, viz. the *kharíf*, *henwat*, and *rabí*. Sugar-cane is an exceptional crop, and belongs to none of the above three main divisions. The thin kind of sugar-cane, known as *baraunkha*, is generally grown, the people being under the impression that it yields a better and more abundant supply of saccharine matter, than the thicker and apparently finer sorts of cane, such as *barangha* and *matra*. Cutting usually commences early in January, but is not completed and the sugar made until the middle of February. The crop ripens midway between the *henwat* and the *rabí*, but cannot be classed with either. *Sanwán* is a quick-growing crop, sown in May and cut just before the commencement of the rains. Indigo was formerly extensively grown in Harha, Bangarmau, and Safipur *parganás*. During the latter days of native rule, the cultivation died out, but it has recently been again introduced, and a factory for the dye has been established in Bangarmau. Cotton does not appear to succeed well. During the American war, a good deal was grown, but as prices fell off, its cultivation declined. The prevailing rule with regard to rotation of crops is—one exhausting crop, such as wheat, followed by two or three light ones. A field of ordinary soil is sown one year with wheat; next year it bears a light *kharíf* crop of *kakun* or *mandwa*, followed by a light *rabí* crop of barley or peas; the year afterwards by a *henwat* crop of *joár*, and the succeeding year by wheat again.

Irrigation is largely practised from wells, tanks, and small streams, the entire irrigated area being returned at 210,656 acres, or 46 per cent. of the total cultivated area. The majority of the husbandmen are dependent on the village *mahájans* for seed grain, which they repay in kind at harvest-time. As the grain is borrowed when it is dearest and repaid when it is cheapest, the lender contrives to extract an exorbitant percentage out of the cultivator. As a rule, rents have for many years been paid in money and not in kind. But nowhere is there a trace of any fixed rate, classified either according to quality or to position of the land in the village. The rule has always been for each field to pay the price commensurate with its known productive capabilities and the demand for land in the village. The average price of food grains per cwt. during the ten years ending 1870 is returned as follows:—Unhusked rice, 4s. 2d.; common rice, husked, 8s.; best rice, husked, 12s. 5d.; wheat, 6s. 3d.; barley, 4s. 6d.; *bájra*, 5s. 2d.; *joár*, 5s. 4d.;

gram, 5s. 6d.; *arhar*, 4s. 4d. The food of the people consists of the cheaper sorts of maize, rice, and *kodo* from November to March, and of barley, gram, peas, and pulses during the rest of the year. Famine or distress caused by high prices was felt in Unao in 1769, 1783-85, 1838, 1861, 1865, 1869, and 1874.

Of the 1194 villages which constituted the District before the recent transfers, 266¾ were held in *tálukdárí* tenure, 561½ in *zamíndárí*, 344¾ in *pattidárí*, and 21 in *bháyáchára* tenure. The *tálukdárs* are divided into three classes—old hereditary *tálukdárs*, 5 in number, who own 51 villages; purchasers of estates at auction, 5 in number, holding 156¼ villages; and recent creations by the British Government for loyal services rendered during the Mutiny, 8 in number, owning 59½ villages. What is called the imperfect form of land division prevails. The cultivated land is almost entirely divided according to some standard fixed by the original dividers; this standard is usually a *bighá*, but in some villages an arbitrary standard has been fixed. In Kalha Utaura, for instance, the shares are divided by reference to an assumed total area of 158 *bháyáchára bighás*, as they are called. That is supposed to be the unit, and each man holds a multiple or a fraction of that unit. In most of the villages the homestead, the waste, the water, are held in common by all; the cultivated land is divided off among the members of the community. As a rule, the tenure is exceedingly simple, each village community being separate from the other; the complicated tenures found in the eastern Districts nowhere prevailing, except perhaps in the old *parganá* of Ajgain. This contained 30 villages held by a family of Dikhit Thákurs, originally sprung from the same head, but now divided into separate communities. Instead, however, of each village being held separately as elsewhere, almost every person in the *parganá* holds a share in some of the neighbouring estates. It is not that the lands of one lie interspersed with those of another, but that the shares were carefully bound up one with another. In most of these villages the cultivated land is alone divided, the waste, water, and townships being held in common by all the shareholders. According to tradition, the intention of the author of the scheme was to bind all his descendants together, and, however much they might quarrel amongst themselves, give them all an interest in joining against outside aggression. As a matter of fact, they unite not only against outsiders, but against any encroachment by one of their own number. No farmer or single member of the brotherhood ever had a chance of usurping the rights of others; and to this day the villages still remain intact in possession of their ancestral owners.

Means of Communication, etc.—The Lucknow and Cawnpore branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway intersects Unao District, from east to west, with stations at Kusumbhi, Ajgain, and Unao. It

crosses the Ganges from Unao into Cawnpore by a substantial railway bridge. The main lines of road are as follows:—(1) The Cawnpore and Lucknow road, passing the towns of Unao and Nawábganj, traversing two of the most fertile *parganás* in the District; length in Unao, 22 miles, metalled throughout. (2) From Unao to Rái Bareli, *viâ* Púrwa and Mauránwán; 26 miles, bridged. (3) From Unao to Bihár and Dalmau in Rái Bareli, *viâ* Achalganj; length, 16 miles, only partially bridged. (4) From Unao to Sandíla, *viâ* Rasúlábád, Miánganj, and Haidarábád; 36 miles, not yet bridged across the Sái, which is impassable in the rains. (5) From Unao to Hardoi, *viâ* Safipur, Bángarmau, and Muradábád; 44 miles; a good road, much used, and bridged throughout. (6) From Nánámau Ghát on the Ganges to Lucknow, *viâ* Bángarmau, Asíwán, and Miánganj; 44 miles in Unao. Formerly the high-road to Delhi, but latterly fallen into disuse, and only used for local traffic. Minor roads—Cawnpore to Púrwa, 26 miles; Rasúlábád to Pariar, 15 miles; Miánganj to Safipur, 10 miles; Púrwa to Báni, 15 miles. In addition to these aligned roads, there are also numerous cart-tracks from village to village, which are readily traversable for eight months in the year. Ferries are maintained across the Ganges.

Manufactures, Trade, etc.—The manufactures of Unao consist of a little weaving and the making of agricultural implements, but the articles made are only for local use. Indigo manufacture, which had formerly died out, has again been resumed. The commerce of the District is small, and is chiefly carried on by traders resident at Mauránwán, Púrwa, Muradábád, Bángarmau, and some of the small markets scattered through the District. The principal exports are grain of all kinds, *ghí*, *gúr*, tobacco, and a little indigo and saltpetre. Chief imports—piece-goods, salt, iron, cotton, spices, and other necessaries required for consumption by a rural population.

Administration.—Unao is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, aided by 3 or 4 Assistant Commissioners, 4 *tahsíldárs*, and 3 Honorary Assistant Commissioners. The total imperial revenue of the District in 1872 amounted to £152,528, of which £134,507 was derived from the land. The imperial expenditure, excluding the cost of the police, amounted in the same year to £10,152. Receipts from local funds amounted to £14,060, and the expenditure to £14,027. Total imperial and local revenue in 1872, £166,588; expenditure, £24,179. For police purposes, the District is divided into the following 9 police circles (*thánás*):—Unao, Púrwa, Mauránwán, Bára, Ajgain, Achalganj, Newalganj, Safipur, and Bángarmau. The regular police force in 1873 consisted of 462 officers and men, maintained at a cost to Government of £6770; the village police or rural watch numbered 2353, maintained by the landholders or villagers at an estimated cost of £8521; and the

town force numbered 21 men, maintained by the municipalities at a cost of £123. Education is afforded by 1 high school, 11 second-class, and 116 third-class or village schools, attended by a daily average of 5714 pupils. There is also 1 girls' school, with an average attendance of 19 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The range of the thermometer varies from about 75° F. to 103° in the hot weather, and from 46° to 79° in the cold season. The monthly mean temperature in 1875 was returned as follows:—Jan. 60° F., Feb. 63°, March 77°, April 81°, May 89°, June 92°, July 86°, Aug. 84°, Sept. 86°, Oct. 79°, Nov. 70°, Dec. 61° F. The rainfall during the eleven years ending 1875 averaged 37·4 inches, the lowest rainfall occurring in 1868, with 15·2 inches, and the highest in 1867, with 75·7 inches. The prevailing endemic diseases in the District are malarious fever, dysentery, and ague. Leprosy is also met with. Cholera and small-pox occur every year. Cattle-plague appeared in an epidemic form in 1873.

Unao.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Unao District, Oudh, lying between 26° 17′ and 26° 40′ N. lat., and between 80° 21′ and 80° 44′ E. long.; bounded on the north by Safipur and Mohán *tahsíls*, on the east and south by Púrwa, and on the west by Cawnpore District in the North-Western Provinces. Area, 385 square miles, of which 199 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 200,217, of whom 192,223 are Hindus and 7994 Muhammadans. Average density of population, 520 per square mile; number of villages or townships, 290. This *tahsíl* comprises the 4 *parganás* of Unao, Pariar, Sikandarpur, and Harha.

Unao.—*Parganá* in Unao District, Oudh; situated in the east of the District, along the left or north bank of the Ganges. Area, 41,081 acres, of which 20,281 are under cultivation, 9137 cultivable, and 11,663 uncultivable waste. The *parganá* abounds in *mahuá* and mango groves, and grows good crops of wheat, rice, and tobacco. The area held under the different tenures is as follows:—*Tálukdárí*, 8497 acres; sub-settlement, 1989 acres; *zamíndárí*, 13,124 acres; and *pattidárí*, 17,470 acres. Pop. (1869), 33,725, of whom 30,256 are Hindus and 3469 Muhammadans. Government revenue, £5363.

Unao.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Unao District, Oudh; situated 9 miles north-east of Cawnpore, on the road to Lucknow, in lat. 26° 32′ 25″ N., and long. 80° 32′ E. The town is pleasantly situated. Pop. (1869), 7277, of whom 4723 are Hindus and 2554 Muhammadans. Number of houses, 1895, of which 150 are of masonry. Fourteen Hindu temples, and 10 mosques. Daily market, the sales at which average £3300 annually. Unao is a prosperous and important place, and a station on the Cawnpore and Lucknow branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The history of the town is thus described in the official *Oudh Gazetteer*:—

'There were formerly extensive jungles on the site of the present town. About 1100 years ago, Godo Sinh, a Chauhán Thákúr, an officer in the army of a Bengal Rájá, cleared the jungle and founded a town which he called Sarái Godo. He left it shortly afterwards, and the place passed into the hands of Rájá Ajipál, a prince of the Chandrabansi or Lunar race of the Kshattriyas reigning at Kanauj. Khánde Sinh was made governor. His lieutenant, Unwant Sinh, a Bisen, murdered him, built a fort, and, having acquired independent authority, renamed the place after himself. About 1450 A.D., a great battle was fought here. Rájá Umráwat Sinh, son of Rájá Jagdeo Sinh, and descendant of Unwant Sinh, was a bigoted Hindu, and would not allow the Musalmáns to sound the *azán* or pray in public. Some Sayyids organized an expedition against him, got into his fort by stratagem during a feast, killed him, and took possession of the estate. The present *tálukdár*, Chaudhri Dost Alí, is descended from their leader. Among his ancestors, Bahá-ud-dín and Sayyid Husáin distinguished themselves; they were entrusted with the government by the Delhi sovereigns, and founded several villages, among others Dostinagar and Baida Abbáspur. In the reign of Sháh Jahán, Fateh-ullá, of a Shaikh family, settled here and was made governor. Some fine buildings of his erection still remain. One of his descendants, Maulví Ihsán Alí, a poet of repute, was attached as such to the court of Nawáb Saádat Alí. Gopál Dás was appointed *kánúngo* by Sher Sháh, and his descendant Rájá Nand Kishor was *chaukladár* for some time. A battle was fought here on 29th July 1857 between General Havelock's forces and the mutineers, who were defeated with loss.'

Unchehra (*Ucheyra, Uchahara*).—Native State.—*See* NAGODE.

Unja.—Town in Baroda State, Guzerat.—*See* UJA.

Untri.—Native State in Jháláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £195; and tribute is paid of £49 to the British Government, and £4 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Upad.—Marsh or *bhíl* in Goálpára District, Assam; covering an area of about 12 square miles.

Upleta.—Port in Gondal State, Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 21° 44′ N., long. 70° 20′ E.; pop. (1872), 6500.

Upmáka.—Village in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 17° 25′ N., long. 82° 46′ E.; pop. (1871), 2051, inhabiting 426 houses. There is a very ancient temple here, which contains no idol or likeness of any living thing, though the conch and discus of Vishnu figured on a stone.

Upper Godávari District.—Formerly a separate British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 17° 57′ and 19° 7′ N. lat., and between 79° 58′ and 81° E. long.; bounded

on the north by the Ahírí Chiefship of Chándá District, on the east by Jáipur State and Godávari District of the Madras Presidency, on the south and west by the Godávari and Pránhíta rivers. Population in 1872, 52,120; area, 1971 (afterwards reduced to 1085) square miles: or, including the Dependency of BASTAR (*q.v.*), attached to Upper Godávari District, population, 130,976; area, 15,033 square miles. Principal town, SIRONCHA. The Upper Godávari District proper was, in 1878-79, amalgamated with Chánda District, excepting two *táluks*, which were transferred to Madras. But the transfer is so recent, and the name of the District so often occurs in official papers, that it is expedient to give an account of it as formerly constituted.

Physical Aspects. — Upper Godávari District lies apart from the great plateaux and plains that constitute the larger part of the Central Provinces, from which it is severed by a wilderness of hills and forests. It consists of a straggling territory stretching away towards the south-east along the left bank of the Godávari, with a width varying from 5 to 25 miles. Below Sironchá, the Bastar dependency abuts upon the river for a distance of about 15 miles, and breaks the District into two disconnected portions. A dense forest covers nearly the whole of this savage region; but narrow strips of cultivated land lie along the river banks, and farther inland a few patches of rich black soil maintain small and scattered villages of the hill tribesmen. In the north-western extremity of the District rises a low range of sandstone hills, its base washed by the Pránhíta river. For the most part, the hills in the Sironchá or north-western *táluk* are metamorphic, consisting chiefly of vitrified sandstone. They shut in a narrow tract of fertile country along the Godávari, and run in a south-easterly direction parallel to the course of the river. On the south-west side, they rise from the plain in a steep slope, crowned by a scarped precipice from 100 to 200 feet high; towards the north-east, the descent is usually gentle. But few streams have their source among those barren and strong ridges. Farther towards the south-east, the hills attain a greater height, and between the Indrávatí and the Tálper river take the name of Gádaguttá, from the boldly scarped mountain which terminates the range. Seen from the valley of the Godávari, this range presents a striking and picturesque appearance; and in the rainy season, several fine waterfalls dash down its precipitous sides into dark and thickly wooded ravines. The highest point of the Gádalguttá range is 3285 feet above sea level. On the east bank of the Tálper, a long, low chain of volcanic formation runs north into the Bastar State. From this point to the south-east extremity of the District, the formation is almost entirely volcanic. The country between the hills and the Godávari is generally flat, and becomes richer and more productive as the levels fall. The Eastern Gháts separate the District from the Madras Presidency. In many

places their summit is crowned by a stony plateau, and here and there a hill stream cuts its way through a deep channel down the gently sloping sides. The Godávari, the principal river of the District, forms the southern boundary. Near Sironchá, beds of ferruginous sandstone and mottled clay crop out, so delicately stratified that they must have been deposited in very still waters. The ease with which they can be worked, and their variegated colours of grey, pink, and violet, render them well adapted for building purposes. Two miles east of Sironchá lies a bed of argillaceous limestone, extending over 60 miles, and containing fossil fish and fish scales in considerable quantities. At Bhadrácallam, Enchampallí, and Ahírí, the metamorphic ranges strike the river, and form the three obstructions to navigation known as the first, second, and third barriers. The other important rivers of the District are the Pránhíta on the western boundary, the Indrávatí, Tálper, Sabarí, and Seleru. At Kotá, on the Pránhíta, coal has been found, but of indifferent quality. The rivers abound in fish of many varieties. The *máhasír* is said to frequent the Indrávatí and Sabarí, and the *rohú* is common. But though in many villages the Dhímars catch large quantities with drag-nets, fish nowhere forms a favourite food of the people. Prawns are abundant during the hot season. All the large rivers are frequented by crocodiles. In the jungle, tigers and leopards are by no means numerous, probably because the scanty herds of village cattle fail to attract them. Bears are common in the south-east, as are bison throughout the greater part of the District. *Sámbhar*, *nílgái*, spotted deer, and jungle sheep, besides quail, partridge, pea-fowl, and jungle fowl, abound.

History.—Of the early history of the District nothing is known; though the cromlechs, kistvaens, and cairns scattered here and there in forests and on hillsides excite the curiosity of the inquirer. The people say that these erections formed the temples of the Rákshasas, a race half-human, half-demon, who dwelt of old in these parts. According to the Telinga Bráhmans, Ráma, when wandering in the wilderness, visited this country; and they identify the present Parnasálá with the Parnakuti mentioned in the *Rámáyana* as one of his resting-places. From Parnasálá, also, Sítá was carried off by the Rákshasa Ráwan; and the hill on the opposite or south bank of the Godávari bears the name of Ratabgattá or 'Hill of the Car,' for the tracks of the car in which Sítá was whirled away may yet be traced on the rock at the summit. In historic times, the District was probably included in the dominions of the Andhra kings of Telingana, who had their capital first near Nánder on the Godávari, and afterwards removed it to Anamakondá and Warangal, about 90 miles south of Sironchá. The Telingána kingdom is known to have flourished from the 11th to the 14th century, when Warangal was merged in the Muhammadan principality of Golconda.

The Upper Godávari District, as originally constituted, consisted mainly of portions of two large chiefships, the Yelma chiefship in the north-west, and the Hasanábád Sankargirí or Bhadráchallam chiefship in the south-east, the bulk of both being situated in the Nizám's territories across the river. Of these chiefships, the latter traces its origin to the fall of the Telingána power, when the representative of the Delhi Emperor granted the Hasanábád Sankargirí chiefship in *jágír* to Anápá Aswa Ráo, the founder of the family which still holds it. The quarrels between this house and that of Yelma, with their occasional revolts against the government of the Nizám, make up the modern history of the District. The incursions of the Marhattás from Chándá appear to have been merely predatory raids. In 1860, the Nizám ceded the District to the British Government, and since then order has reigned throughout the country, though it still constitutes the most backward portion of the Central Provinces. In 1874, the *táluks* of Bhadráchallam and Rákápalli, in the south-east, were transferred from the Central Provinces to the Madras Presidency, and, in 1878-79, the remainder of the District was amalgamated with that of Chánda.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Upper Godávari at 54,680, exclusive of BASTAR. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 52,120. The latest estimate, in 1877, indicates a total of 54,780. From this last return must be deducted the population of the Bhadráchallam and Rákápalli *táluks*, since transferred to Madras, and for which the requisite information is not available. The Census of 1872 still remains, therefore, the only basis for a detailed examination of the people. It returned a population of 52,120 persons, on an area of 1971 square miles, since reduced to 1085 square miles; residing in 427 villages or townships and 11,280 houses. Persons per square mile, 26·44; villages per square mile, 0·22; persons per village, 122; persons per house, 5·72. Thus the Upper Godávari is the most thinly populated District of the Central Provinces. Classified according to sex—males, 27,273; females, 24,847. According to age, the male children not exceeding 12 years numbered 6226; the female children, 5597. Ethnical division—Europeans, 19; Eurasians, 44; aboriginal tribes, 17,600; Hindus, 33,047; Muhammadans, 1184. There were no Buddhists or Jains. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds, 15,876; the remainder consist of Bhíls, Bhilals, etc. The Gonds are subdivided into Gotes and Koís or Koitors. Though identical in customs and in language, these will not eat together nor intermarry; and the Koís claim a superiority over the Gotes. Among the Hindus, Bráhmans numbered 705; the mass of the Hindu population consist of Dhers or Mhars, Dhimars, Kurmís, and other cultivating or inferior

castes. Native Christians, 236. The language spoken by the Hindu population is a harsh variety of Telugu; the hill tribes retain their own dialects.

Division into Town and Country.—There were in 1872 only 3 towns in Upper Godávari District with a population exceeding 1000, the most important of which were Dumagudem, with 2008 inhabitants, included in the territory since transferred to Madras; and Sironchá, the District capital, with a population of 1145. Townships of 200 to 1000 inhabitants, 61; villages of less than 200 inhabitants, 363. There is no municipality in the District.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 1085 square miles, only 37 are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste, 757 are returned as cultivable; 4616 acres of the cultivated land are irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. About 90 tanks, in tolerable repair, afford water for this purpose, and nearly forty more might be rendered available. Besides these, the forests contain the embankments of many old tanks, now overgrown with jungle and forgotten, which in former times evidently irrigated a considerable area. Only the larger villages have wells, though *budkís* or temporary wells are often dug in the beds of the water-courses, and yield a doubtful supply till they disappear in the floods. The Government assessment is at the rate of 1s. 9d. per acre of cultivated land, or 1d. on the cultivable land. In 1877, 4227 acres were devoted to rice, 171 to wheat, and 16,616 to other food grains; while oil-seeds occupied 1713 and cotton 635 acres. The average prices of produce per cwt. were as follows:—Rice, 10s. 11d.; wheat, 8s.; and indigenous cotton, 70s. 9d. Among the other products of the District, honey, lac, and *tasar* silk are the most important. Vegetables are little cultivated, except near the larger villages; and mango and plantain trees are rarely met with. The breed of horses and ponies, as might be expected in a country covered with jungle, is exceedingly poor. The cattle, on the other hand, though small, thrive on the excellent pasture found in the District, and form the chief wealth of the inhabitants. The sheep, too, near Sironchá are reckoned of good quality. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 45 proprietors, of whom 27 were classed as inferior. The tenants numbered 6775, of whom 1674 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 5101 were tenants-at-will. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land are returned as follows:—Land suited for rice, 4s.; for wheat, 3s.; for inferior grain, 2s. 6d.; for cotton or oil-seeds, 2s. Skilled labourers in 1877 received 1s. per diem; unskilled labourers, 4½d.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District is in its infancy, and the exports and imports are alike of insignificant proportions. Male buffaloes are exported to the coast, to be used in ploughing the rice-fields; and the Gonds collect beeswax and lac, most of which goes to the

coast or to Haidarábád. A few deer horns and skins, and the plumage of the common kingfisher, are bought by traders from Burma. Though iron-ore of good quality abounds, it is little worked. Every August and September, the Sonjharís repair to the Godávari near the village of Marrigudem, for the purpose of washing the gold, minute grains of which are found in some gravel beds exposed at that season; but the work is barely remunerative. In the part of the District now transferred to Madras, garnets, sapphires, and amethysts are found. The Upper Godávari District does not contain a single made road, but a cart-track runs from village to village along the left bank of the Godávari, between Sironchá and Dumagudem. In the upper part of the District, communication is conducted by means of small carts of the Nágpur pattern. In the lower parts, everything is carried by *káwarí* or two baskets hanging from a pole which rests on the shoulder. The father of a family may be met trudging along, with his child slung at one end of the *káwarí* stick, balanced by a bag of rice at the other. The river is the real highway of the District, and the only line of what little traffic takes place. In 1877, the Godávari and the Pránhíta afforded means of communication for 58 miles; and whenever the first and second barriers shall have been removed, an open waterway of 300 miles will extend from the Bay of Bengal into the heart of the country.

Administration.—In 1861, Upper Godávari was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces, administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1872-73, £6104, of which the land yielded £3205. Total revenue in 1876-77, £3666, of which the land yielded £1902. The transfer in 1874 of two *táluks* from the Central Provinces to Madras accounts for the diminution. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds in 1876-77, £3553. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 2; magistrates, 3. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 112 miles; average distance, 34 miles. Number of police, 77, costing £1840; being 1 policeman to about every 14 square miles and to every 319 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 19, of whom 1 was a woman. The total cost of the jails in that year was £134. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under inspection was 8, attended by 215 pupils. As above stated, the Upper Godávari District was incorporated in 1878-79 with Chánda.

Medical Aspects.—The year is divided into three seasons. The hot season sets in towards the end of February. In March the grass in the forests begins to burn, so that between the heat of the sun and the smoke of the jungle fires, the whole country is enveloped in a haze,

which limits the horizon to a distance of 3 or 4 miles. In April and May, thunderstorms, with violent winds, are frequent; and in June, the regular rains set in, lasting till the beginning of October. The cold weather occupies the intervening months till the ensuing February. Average temperature in the shade at Sironchá station, for the year 1876—May, highest reading 115°, lowest 80°; July, highest 96°, lowest 72°; December, highest 87°, lowest 54°. The rainfall amounted to 27·55 inches, the average being 42·97 inches. As might be expected in a country of which the highlands are covered with jungle, and the lowlands subject to floods, the District is unhealthy. The prevailing diseases are dysentery and diarrhœa during the early part of the rainy season, when the water is particularly impure, and fever and ague in the succeeding months. The commonest type of fever is not immediately dangerous to life; but the system gives way under its repeated attacks, or yields in its weakened state to other disorders. Cholera is not a frequent visitant; but small-pox works great ravages, especially among children. Vital statistics showed in the five years ending in 1875 an average death-rate of 22·45 per thousand. In 1876, when cholera prevailed, the death-rate amounted to 28·93. A charitable dispensary at Sironchá affords medical relief to in-door and out-door patients.

Upper Sind Frontier.—A British District, forming the northernmost portion of the Province of Sind, included within the Bombay Presidency; lying between 27° 56′ and 28° 27′ N. lat., and between 68° and 69° 44′ E. long. Area, as returned in the *Sind Gazetteer*, 2225 square miles; population (1872), 95,554. Bounded on the north and west by the Deraját Districts of the Punjab, and the territory of the Khán of Khelát; on the south by Shikárpur District; and on the east by the river Indus. The administrative headquarters are at JACOBABAD.

Physical Aspects.—With the exception of a triangular tract in the north-east which was transferred from the Punjab in 1866, the Frontier District consists of a narrow strip of level plain, half of which is covered with jungle and subject to annual inundation. Greatest length from east to west, 114 miles; maximum breadth from north to south, 20 miles. In certain parts of the District, high and extensive sandhills form a feature in the landscape; and numerous mounds on the plains attest the existence of former towns and villages. The land itself lies from 170 to 273 feet above sea level, being highest on its eastern side near the river Indus, whence it slopes downwards to the west.

An interesting feature in the Upper Sind Frontier District is its canal system, which derives its supply from the Indus, and is the chief source of its agricultural productiveness. The following are the principal canals maintained by Government, which form an important

source of the District revenue:—(1) The Begári Canal is the largest, and takes off from the Indus in the extreme south-eastern corner of the District. It flows along the south of the District to Khera Garhi in the extreme west; total length, 85 miles; width at mouth, 57 feet; navigable throughout by large boats. The average annual cost of clearing this canal for the five years ending 1873-74 was £1141, while the average annual revenue during the same period amounted to £8315. (2) The Núrwa is a branch of the Begári, taking off from that canal 40 miles from its head, and running northwards to Jacobábád, a distance of 19 miles, of which 10 miles are navigable. Annual cost of maintenance, £854; annual revenue, £2022. (3) The Sonwa is another branch of the Begári, which takes off from it 19 miles from its head, and runs northwards for 19 miles through the *tappas* of Mírpur and Thul. Annual cost of maintenance, £594; annual revenue, £2091. (4) The Mírzáwa is another branch of the Begári, 9½ miles in length, watering the *tappas* of Mírpur and Mubárakpur. Annual cost of maintenance, £211; annual revenue, £2528. (5) The Budwa is a short branch of the Núrwa, 4 miles in length. Annual cost of maintenance, £92; annual revenue, £193. (6) The Desert Canal, formerly known as the Maksúdwa, runs 35 miles into the desert west of Kashmor, irrigating from 30,000 to 40,000 acres. Annual cost of maintenance £986; annual revenue, £3043. This canal is intended to have a total length of 90 miles. Besides these canals, there are numerous smaller branches from each of them, which are under the management of the landholders.

The principal forest and other trees which are met with in the District are the following:—Cypress or *farash* (Cupressus?), tamarisk or *jhau* (Tamarix indica), willow poplar or *bahan* (Populus euphratica), *babul* (Acacia arabica), wild caper-tree or *karil* (Caparis aphylla), *pilú* (Salvadora eleoides), *kandi* (Prosopis spicigera), *sissu* (Dalbergia sissoo), *ním* (Azadirachta indica), acacia or *siras* (Acacia speciosa), banian or *bar* (Ficus indica), Indian fig-tree or *pípal* (Ficus religiosa), tamarind or *imli* (Tamarindus indica), Indian mahogany or *tún* (Soymida febrifuga), poplar or *chunar* (Populus fastigiata ?), *papaya* (Carica papaya). The three last-named trees have only been introduced of late years. The District contains several thriving timber plantations, but only two small tracts in Alípur *tappa* are conserved. Wild animals comprise an occasional tiger and numerous hyænas. Wild hogs and jackals abound; foxes are occasionally met with; and antelopes, hog-deer, and a species of *sámbhar* are found in the dense jungle tracts adjoining the Indus.

Population.—According to the Census of 1872, the population of the District was returned at 95,554, including the population of Jacobábád cantonment, which then amounted to 5599 persons; Muhammadans numbered 85,320, Hindus 10,092, Christians 88, and 'others' 54. The

Báluchis, who form the great majority of the Muhammadan population, are divided into the following great clans:—The Jamális, who inhabit the western portion of the District; the Jakránis, who reside in the neighbourhood of Jacobábád, and many of whom enlist in the District police; the Dúmbkis, living near Jacobábád and Kumbri; the Khosas, who are distributed throughout the District; the Búrdis, the Búrdikas, and the Mazáris, who live in the neighbourhood of Kashmor. These, again, are subdivided into numerous lesser families. The principal clans of the Samma tribe are the Mahár, Chachar, Buhra, Pitáfi, Machhi, Sudháya, and Subháya. The Játs, who are subdivided into Lesháris, Bráhmanis, Waswánis, and Babars, live in encampments of mat tents, and are engaged in tending and rearing camels. The food of these different tribes consists of unleavened wheaten or *joár* bread, with milk and butter, and occasionally meat, eggs, and vegetables. They are addicted to the use of *bhang* and tobacco, and drink spirituous liquors. The dress of the men is of cotton, and is made up of a turban, breeches, and a long loose shirt, with a *lungi* or *dopata* thrown across the shoulders, or wound round the waist. The dress of the women is, excepting the turban, much the same as that of the men; the breast portion of the shirt is, however, generally embroidered with either red silk or cotton.

Border Tribes.—The following account of the frontier clans, illustrating their old predatory habits, and the effectual means taken to reclaim them,—measures which have converted thousands of lawless and wild people into industrious cultivators and traders,—is quoted from a Report by the late General Jacob, written in 1854, when he was Commandant and Political Superintendent on the Frontier: 'These tribes are the Mazáris, Búrdis, Khosas, Jamális, Jatois, Dúmbkis, Jakránis, and others. The Mazáris inhabit the country on the right bank of the Indus, between Mithánkot and Búrdika. This tract is chiefly in the Punjab, a small part only falling within the boundary of Sind. The habits of this tribe were wholly, and are still to a great extent, predatory. They continually plundered the river-boats, and made frequent incursions into the Baháwalpur territory on the left bank of the Indus. They were often at war with the Bhúgtis and Maris, and did not hesitate to attack the Dúmbkis and Jakránis at Púlaji, Chatar, etc., from whom they occasionally succeeded in driving off much cattle. The Mazáris are the most expert cattle-stealers in the border country, and have the reputation of being brave warriors. Not many of the tribe now remain in Sind, even in the Kashmor district. Most of them have left that part of the country, and taken up their abode with their chief and brethren in the Punjab, where they are allowed to bear arms, which is not permitted in Sind. They still make occasional plundering excursions into the Baháwalpur country and the British

territory on the eastern bank of the Indus. The Búrdis reside chiefly in the district called after them Búrdika, which lies on the western bank of the Indus, between the Mazári district on the north and the Sind Canal on the south. This tribe first came in contact with the British in 1838, when the fortress of Bukkur was handed over to the latter by Mír Rustam of Khairpur. The habits of this tribe were formerly wholly predatory, and up to 1847 the Búrdis made frequent marauding inroads on their neighbours in Kachhi and in the hills, as well as in Sind.

'In 1839, the Búrdis, in common with the Baluch tribes of Kachhi, continually plundered the British convoys moving towards Afghánistán; on this account the chief, Sher Muhammad, was imprisoned by Mír Rustam of Khairpur (whose subjects the Búrdis were), and sent to Mr. Bell, then Political Agent in Upper Sind. This tribe continued in the practice of murder and robbery, as before, until the year 1842, when, the country being well guarded, they abstained altogether from plunder. On the deposition of Mír Rustam, and the conquest of Sind by the British in 1843, Búrdika came under the rule of Mír Alí Murád; and the Búrdis resumed their predatory habits with more than wonted vigour, till, in 1844, Mír Alí Murád seized the chiefs of the tribe and kept them in close confinement in the Díji fort till December 1844, when they were released, and accompanied the Mír, with a large number of their tribe, in the hill campaign, in conjunction with Sir Charles Napier. After the predatory tribes of Kachhi (Dúmbkis, Jakránis, etc.) had been transported and settled by Sir Charles Napier on the Sind border, they joined the Búrdis and Khosas in carrying on frequent plundering excursions in secret. Their lawless proceedings were generally attributed to the Bhúgtis and other hillmen, till, in 1847, the Sind Horse were again posted on the Frontier, and Major Jacob discovered and broke up the whole confederacy of robbers on the British border, and punished many of the offenders. At this time every one in the country went armed, but Major Jacob applied for and obtained permission to disarm all men not in Government employ, and this rule was rigidly enforced. Mír Alí Murád also gave Major Jacob full power over all his subjects on the border; but the greater part of the Búrdika district was covered with impenetrable jungle, affording great facilities to the practice of robbery, which, in spite of every effort, was carried on by the Búrdis occasionally, in gangs of from six to twenty men, calling themselves Bhúgtis, but being really inhabitants of Sind. In order to lay open this wild country, Major Jacob obtained permission to cut roads through the jungle. This was done, and, together with other measures which were adopted, proved completely successful in calming the country, which thenceforth became quiet, orderly, and peaceable; the people have taken wholly to

agricultural and pastoral pursuits, and cultivation has greatly increased.

'Búrdika became British territory in 1852, when the lands of Mír Rustám, which had been given to Alí Murád at the conquest of Sind, were resumed. The Khosas are a very numerous Baluch tribe, not confined to any one locality, but scattered all over the country from Nagar Párkar to Dádar. The men are plunderers, cultivators, soldiers, or shepherds, according to circumstances. There are several villages of this tribe on the Sind border. They have now but few peculiarities to distinguish them from the other tribes of Sind and Kachhi. They are said to have been originally Abyssinians, and some have derived their name from "Kush," but of this nothing certain, or even probable, can be discovered. The Jatois and Jamális are two Baluch tribes, both numerous and scattered about the country of Upper Sind and Kachhi. They are cultivators and artificers, and, as a rule, not predatory. The Dúmbkis and Jakránis were the most formidable and warlike of all the Baluch tribes, hill or plain. Up to 1845, they resided in the plains of Eastern Kachhi, where they held the lands of Lhari, Wazira, Púlaji, Chatar, etc. After Sir Charles Napier's hill campaign in 1845, that portion of the Dúmbki tribe which had surrendered to him at Traki was placed under a chief, by name Jamál Khán, on lands near Jáni-dero on the Sind Frontier. Daria Khán and Túrk Alí, with the Jakránis, and some men of other clans, were settled at Jáni-dero itself and its neighbourhood. The lands were granted to them free for three years (afterwards altered to a free grant in perpetuity), and it was expected that they would now take to agricultural pursuits.

'But though a Commissioner was appointed to superintend them at Jánidero, and troops posted at Sháhpur in Kachhi, the Dúmbkis, Jakránis, Khosas, Búrdis, etc., made repeated plundering excursions from British Sind into the neighbouring countries, both hill and plain. The Bhúgtis did the same from their side into Sind. Murder and robbery everywhere prevailed. The troops shut up in forts did nothing to protect the people. The country along the border was left uncultivated, the canals were not cleared out for years, and nearly all the peaceable people left the country. The troops were perfectly isolated in their entrenchments, no supplies were drawn from the country folk, but all were fed as if on shipboard, by the commissariat. Even at the distant post of Sháhpur in Kachhi, the troops and camp-followers were supplied with every article of consumption from the public stores, forwarded by the commissariat department, at an enormous cost, from Shikárpur, 60 miles distant. The cavalry horses were fed in like manner. Notwithstanding that the Bhúgtis had been proclaimed outlaws, a price set on the head of every man of the tribe, and all of them ordered to be treated as enemies wherever they were found, they were

not subdued, nor, indeed, in any way weakened by any of the proceedings of the Governor of Sind.

'The removal of the Jakránis and Dúmbkis from Kachhi left the Sind border temptingly open to their incursions, and they failed not to take advantage of the circumstances. At last, becoming more and more bold by impunity, they assembled a force of some 1500 armed men, mostly on foot, and on the 10th of December 1846, marched into Sind, passed through the British outposts, which dared not attack them, to within 15 miles of Shikárpur, and remained twenty-four hours within British territory, secured every head of cattle in the country around, and returned to their hills, some 75 miles distant, with all their booty in perfect safety. A regiment of cavalry and 200 Native Rifles were sent from Shikárpur to repel the invaders. The cavalry came upon them at Húdú, about 45 miles from Shikárpur. The Bhúgtis halted *en masse*, their unarmed attendants meanwhile diligently continuing to drive on the cattle towards Sori, Kúshtak, and the hills. The British troops, however, were ignorant of the ground, thought the robbers too strong to be attacked, and returned to Shikárpur without attempting anything further. The Bhúgtis ultimately reached the hills with all their plunder, without the loss of a man, save one killed by a distant random shot from the matchlock of a Jakráni. One regiment of the Sind Horse, then at Haidarábád, was now ordered up with all speed to the Frontier, where it arrived on the 9th of January 1847. Major Jacob was appointed to command the Frontier, and since then has held this post. On arrival at Khánghar, desolation and terror were found to prevail everywhere in the country; no man could go in safety from place to place, and even on the main line of communication from Shikárpur to Jagan an escort was necessary. Not a man of the Baluch settlers, the Jakránis and Dúmbkis, had as yet attempted any peaceful labour, or even put his hand to an agricultural implement. At Khángar there was no village, no *bázár*, and but four or five wretched huts, containing in all twenty-two persons. The cavalry detachment was found by the Sind Horse, on arrival, *locked* up in the fort, the gate not being even opened at eight o'clock in the morning. They, during the previous four years, knew little or nothing of the country or of the people on the border; the men of the Sind Horse were familiar with both, and this gave them confidence and power. After assuming the command and relieving the outposts, Major Jacob at once ordered all idea of *defensive* operations to be abandoned; every detachment was posted in the open plain, without any protective works whatever; patrols were sent in every direction in which it was thought an enemy might appear, and these parties crossed and met so often that support was almost certain to be at hand if wanted. The parties were sent to distances of 40 miles into and beyond the desert, and along the Frontier line.

'Whenever a party of the Sind Horse came on any of the plunderers, it always fell on them at once, charging any number, however superior, without the slightest hesitation. Against such sudden attacks the robber horsemen never attempted a stand; they always fled at once, frequently sustaining heavy loss in men, and never succeeding in obtaining any plunder. These proceedings, and especially the tracks, daily renewed, of our parties all over the desert, and at all the watering-places near the hills, far beyond the British border, alarmed the robbers, and prevented them ever feeling safe, and they soon ceased to make attempts on British territory, though still plundering in Kachhi. Meanwhile, Major Jacob had discovered that not only the Búrdis and Mazáris, who were always inveterate marauders, but the Baluch settlers at Jáni-dero, had been all along systematically carrying on plundering excursions on a considerable scale. The existence of these proceedings were at first thought impossible; but having good information of what was going on, Major Jacob caused the place of their predatory rendezvous to be suddenly surrounded by parties of the Sind Horse, just after the return of a body of Jakráni plunderers from a foray, and the robbers were all secured, with their horses, arms, and a large quantity of stolen cattle. Concealment was no longer possible, and Major Jacob now obtained permission to disarm every man in the country not being a Government servant, which was at once done. At the same time, Major Jacob set 500 of the Jakránis to work to clear out the Núrwa Canal (a main-feeder cleared by Government, though then belonging to Mír Alí Murád). This experiment was perfectly successful, and soon after the Baluch settlers took to manual labour in their own fields with spirit, and even pride. From that time they were really conquered, and commenced to be reformed; they are now the most hard-working, industrious, well-behaved, and cheerful set of men in all Sind.'

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 2225 square miles, or 1,424,000 acres, 316,537 acres are returned as cultivated or available for cultivation. The principal crops of the District, and the area, in acres, occupied by each, are returned as follows (1873-74):—Wheat or *kanak* (Triticum vulgare), 43,731 acres; *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), 43,121; *bájra* (Pencillaria vulgaris), 8439; rice, 990; barley or *jau* (Hordeum hexastichon), 2772; pulse or *múg* (Phaseolus mungo), 8; gram or *chana* (Cicer arietinum), 2395; pease or *matar* (Lathyrus sativus), 1521; *moth*, 157; *til* (Sesamum indicum), 3935; mustard or *sarson* (Sinapis ramosa), 52,673; cotton or *vaun* (Gossypium herbaceum), 684; indigo or *niru* (Indigofera tinctoria), 193; tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum), 15; melons, 171; and hemp or *bhang* (Cannabis sativa), 11 acres: total, 160,816 acres. The fruits indigenous to the District are the melon, mango, plum, and date. A great variety of other fruits have of late

years been introduced into the gardens at Jacobábád, including nectarines, peaches, oranges, lemons, figs, apricots, *lichís*, grapes, loquats, strawberries, etc. The three crops of the year are known as the *rabí*, *kharíf*, and *peshras*. The first, comprising wheat, barley, mustard, pease, gram, etc., is sown in November and reaped in April and May. The *kharíf* crop consists chiefly of *joár*, *bájra*, and oil-seeds, which are sown by the end of May or middle of June, and reaped in October and November. The *peshras* crop includes cotton, melons, and gourds.

Means of Communication, etc.—There are reported to be upwards of 900 miles of roads of all descriptions in the District, many of which are fairly constructed and well kept up. Supplies and water are procurable at all the principal villages. The chief lines of road are the following:—(1) From Jacobábád to Shikárpur, length within the District, 28 miles; (2) Jacobábád to Díl Murád, 8 miles; (3) Jacobábád to Tower Begári, 14 miles; (4) Jacobábád to Nasírábád, 6 miles; (5) Jacobábád to Rojhan, 12 miles; (6) Díl Murád to Garhi Hasan, 12 miles; (7) Garhi Hasan to Tangwáni, 14 miles; (8) Tangwáni to Kandkot, 12 miles; (9) Kandkot to Kumbri, 16 miles; (10) Kumbri to Kashmor, 16 miles; (11) Tower Begári to Chausúl, 14 miles; (12) Chausúl to Rato Dero, 8 miles; (13) Nasírábád to Sháhpur, 24 miles; (14) Rojhan to Muhammadábád, 12 miles; (15) Muhammadábád to Khera Garhi, 12 miles; (16) Khera Garhi to Mehar-ke-khu, 16 miles; (17) Mehar-ke-khu to Chausúl, 8 miles; (18) Chausúl to Shikárpur, 20 miles. The new Frontier Military Railway from the Indus to Sibi crosses the District from Sukkur, on the right bank of the Indus, to Jacobábád on the northern frontier.

Manufactures.—Salt is manufactured in considerable quantities in Kashmor and Thul *táluks*. Saltpetre is also made to a small extent. The lacquered woodwork of Kashmor, as also the *dabbas* or leathern jars for holding oil and *ghí*, made at the same place, are worthy of mention. Embroidered shoes are made in large quantities at Mírpur and Ghauspur. Woollen carpets and saddle-bags are woven by Baluchí and Ját women.

Trade and Commerce.—The internal trade and commerce of this District is principally in grain, the greater part of which is sent to the Punjab. The transit trade from Central Asia into Sind *viâ* the Frontier District is also considerable, but no regular statistics of this traffic have been kept. This trade is carried on by means of camels, ponies, and asses, by the following routes:—(1) From Kandahár, Herát, Kábul, and Bokhára—by Quetta (or Shál) and Khelát, and (2) by Quetta and the Bolán Pass; (3) from Persia by Makrán; and (4) from Thal Chotiála by Bágh. The merchandise brought from these places consists of wool, woollen apparel, *manjít* or madder, fruits, carpets, and horses; of these latter, some are purchased for the use of the cavalry

at Jacobábád, and the others generally proceed to Karáchi by the Khelát road.

Administration.—The political, judicial, and revenue administration of the District is entrusted to a Political Superintendent, who is also the commandant-in-chief of the large military force stationed at Jacobábád. He has two European assistants under him, who are both invested with magisterial powers. At the headquarters station of each of the 3 *táluks* or Subdivisions is a *múkhtiárkár*, with *tappadárs* under him in different parts of the District. The total imperial revenue in 1873-74 amounted to £30,064, of which £25,299 was derived from the land. Education is very backward, there being in 1873-74 only 5 schools in the District, attended by 151 pupils. The police force consists of 115 men, of whom 32 are mounted. The military force is, however, considerable, and consists of 1480 *Sillídár* cavalry, divided into 3 regiments, better known as the Sind Horse, raised in 1839 by the then Resident, Colonel Pottinger. There is, besides, an infantry regiment of 700 men, known as Jacob's Rifles, who have the management also of a mountain battery. The permanent outposts held by this force extend along the foot of the Marri (Murree) and Bhúgti Hills as far as the Punjab border.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the District is remarkable for its extreme dryness, and for its extraordinary variations of temperature. There are but two seasons, the 'hot' and the 'cold;' the former extending from May to September, and the latter from October to April. From the beginning of November to the end of March, a period of five months, the climate is temperate and enjoyable. During December and January the cold is frequently very great, the thermometer sometimes indicating as low a temperature as 27° F. Ice and frosts prevail in consequence, and the latter are not unfrequent in February, and even into March. The mean monthly temperature of the cold season, as taken from the register kept at Jacobábád from 1864 to 1868, is found to range from 58° to 73° F., the mean maximum being 88° in March, and the mean minimum 49° in December. During the hot season, extending over seven months (from April to October), the nights in April and May are comparatively cool, though the days are hot; but it is in the following months of June, July, and August that the full force of the heat is experienced, the difference in temperature, during both day and night, being then very slight. In September, the nights become somewhat cool, with occasional dews; and by about the middle of October a sensible change in the temperature takes place, amounting sometimes to as much as 10° between two successive nights. The mean monthly temperature of the hot season ranges from 80° to 102°, the mean maximum being 108° in June, and the mean minimum 67° in October. A thermometer placed in the sun's rays at noon

during May, has indicated a mean temperature of 134·5° F. The average annual rainfall at Jacobábád during the ten years ending 1874 is returned at 4·39 inches, the maximum rainfall in that period having occurred in 1869 with 12·05 inches, and the minimum in 1867 with 0·97. The prevailing disease is fever in its various forms, occurring mostly in September, October, November, and December, after the annual inundation; affections of the lungs, stomach, and bowels, in the same months; rheumatism in August and December; and acute eye diseases in September, October, and November.

Uppinangadi (Tulu name, *Libbáru*).—Town in South Kánara District, Madras. Lat. 12° 50′ 15″ N., long. 75° 17′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 4897, inhabiting 982 houses. Situated on the Netrávati river.

Upráy.—A small village in Dariápur *táluk*, Ellichpur District, Berar, on the bank of the river Púrna, about 18 miles south of Ellichpur town. Lat. 21° N., long. 77° 34′ 30″ E. Noteworthy on account of a celebrated shrine called Sháh Dáwal. Sháh, a Musalmán, and Dáwal, a Mhár, who arrived together from Hindustán some 200 years ago, were buried here in a common tomb, which is resorted to by both Hindus and Musalmáns, who alike worship at it; it is supported by benefactions and thankofferings.

Uprorá.—Chiefship in the northern hills of Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Estimated pop. (1872), 2589, residing in 39 villages, on an area of 431 square miles, of which 7233 acres lying in the valleys are cultivated, while 60,000 acres are returned as cultivable. Wild elephants are often seen.

Urái.—Southern *tahsíl* of Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of an open plain, well cultivated and fruitful. This *tahsíl* lies along the north bank of the river Betwa, and the soil is mainly fertile black *már*. Area, 295 square miles, of which 185 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 63,446 persons; land revenue, £16,518; total Government revenue, £18,234; rental paid by cultivators, £33,441.

Urái.—Administrative headquarters of Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 59′ 5″ N., and long. 79° 29′ 35″ E., on the Kálpí and Jhánsí road. Pop. (1872), 6398 persons, consisting of 4874 Hindus and 1524 Muhammadans. The civil station adjoins the town, on a high and well-drained site. At the date of annexation, Urái was a poor village of dilapidated huts; but being fixed upon as the headquarters for the newly acquired Jaláun territory in 1839, it has grown rapidly and improved greatly of late years. *Bázár*, known as Ternanganj; public garden and nursery for trees; *tahsíli* school. The former village stood on a hillock, round which extends the modern town. Low, poor-looking shops; few signs of prosperity. Remains of a brick fort, with one ruinous tower; good Muhammadan tombs. Numerous carved blocks of granite, used as

door-steps and posts, occur frequently in the old town. Principal trade, weaving; export of coarse cloth to the Doáb.

Uraiyúr.—*See* TRICHINOPOLI TOWN.

Uran. — Town in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay; situated 22 miles south by west of Thána town, in lat. 18° 52′ 40″ N., and long. 72° 59′ E.; pop. (1872), 5820. Uran is a municipal town, with an income of £539. Post office and dispensary.

Uravakonda.—Town in Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 14° 57′ 30″ N., long. 77° 19′ E.; pop. (1871), 6878, inhabiting 1435 houses. A sub-magistrate's station.

Urcha.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab; situated in Kunáwár, in lat. 31° 38′ N., and long. 78° 37′ E. (Thornton), near the right bank of the Taglakhar river. Numerous *manes* or Buddhist religious mounds stud the surrounding country, consisting of loose, uncemented stones, piled to a height of 3 or 4 feet, and sometimes 200 feet in length. Thornton says that the tops are covered with pieces of slate, carved with religious maxims in the sacred character. The neighbourhood is bare and uninviting.

Urchha.—State and town in the North-Western Provinces.—*See* ORCHHA.

U-rí-toung.—Pagoda in the township of the same name in Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Said to have been built about 1590 A.D. by King Meng-tha-loung, on his return from an expedition against the Khyengs and Mros. Whilst proceeding on his journey, the king had observed what appeared to be a ball of fire on the hill, and was informed by his astrologers that it was the effulgence from the skull of Gautama, when he died in one of his earlier existences as a Bráhman.

U-rí-toung, East. — Small township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. A low-lying tract intersected with tidal creeks. It contains 22 revenue circles. Pop. (1876-77), 35,651; gross revenue, £15,507.

U-rí-toung, West.—Township in Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. The southern portion is intersected with tidal creeks, which unite the Kú-la-dan and Ma-yú rivers; the northern is hilly and forest-clad. The township is divided into 16 revenue circles. Pop. (1876-77), 35,291; revenue, £13,347.

U-rí-toung. — Revenue circle in the West U-rí-toung township, Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3912; gross revenue, £1380.

Uriyá. — South-eastern *tahsíl* of Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces; consisting chiefly of the tract torn with ravines, lying north of the river Jumna. Area, 306 square miles, of which 175 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 108,549 persons; land revenue, £20,981; total Govern-

ment revenue, £22,132; rental paid by cultivators, £39,225; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 1¾d.

Urmar.—Municipal town in Hoshiárpur District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 9632, consisting of 3797 Hindus, 5285 Muhammadans, 212 Síkhs, and 338 'others.' Entrepôt for country produce. Contains a shrine of the Muhammadan saint Sakhi Sarwár, whose annual festival attracts about 1000 persons. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £483, or 8⅞d. per head of population (13,970) within municipal limits.

Urun (*Islámpur*).—Municipal town in Sátára District, Bombay; situated 48 miles south-south-east of Sátára town, in lat. 17° 1′ 47″ N., and long. 74° 25′ 1″ E. Pop. (1872), 8390; municipal income, £230. Dispensary and post office.

Usúr (*Oosoor*).—Chief town of Usúr *táluk*, Salem District, Madras. Lat. 12° 44′ 10″ N., long. 77° 52′ 10″ E.; pop. (1871), 6360, inhabiting 1288 houses. Usúr is the station of the Sub-Collector of the District, with revenue, civil, and criminal courts, and other Government offices. The Remount Depôt, which distributes horses for the whole Madras Army, is 3½ miles from Usúr. The town itself stands 3120 feet above sea level, and possesses a climate cool and pleasant for nine months of the year. The fort, formerly one of the Báramahál strongholds, contains the official residence and offices of the Sub-Collector.

Utakamand (*Ootacamund*, *Ontikalmanda*).—Municipal town in the Nílgiri Hills District, Madras. Lat. 11° 24′ N., long. 76° 44′ E.; containing 2161 houses and 10,319 inhabitants. According to the Census of 1871, there were 2062 houses, with 9982 inhabitants, of whom 481 were Europeans and 288 Eurasians. Utakamand is the headquarters of the Nílgiri Hills District, and the chief sanatorium of the Madras Presidency. It lies 7228 feet above sea level; annual rainfall 44·88 inches, mean temperature 58° F. The variations of the temperature average about 18° in the twenty-four hours, and the extremes in the shade are from 38° minimum in January to 76° maximum in May. The nearest railway station is Mettupálaiyam (corruptly, Mettapollium), 327½ miles from Madras, on the Madras Railway, and 32¼ miles by road from Utakamand *viâ* the Kunúr new *ghát*, and 24½ miles by the old road. The whole journey from Madras occupies twenty-two hours, by rail and road. Utakamand has gradually become the summer headquarters of the Governor of Madras. But the offices of the Madras Government and its chief departments remain throughout the year at the Presidency town.

The plateau of Utakamand was discovered in 1819 by two Madras civilians, while in pursuit of a band of tobacco smugglers. In 1821, the Collector of the District built the first house, and a town after a time grew up. The station reposes in an amphitheatre encircled by noble hills, and adorned by an artificial lake nearly a mile and a half

long. It should be remembered that the Nílgiris lie in the upheaved southern angle, formed by the junction of the two mountain systems of the Indian Peninsula, namely, the EASTERN and WESTERN GHATS. Their lofty heights give a majesty to the region, culminating in Dodabetta Peak, 8760 feet above the level of the sea. Five other mountains, including the well-known Elk Hill, have elevations exceeding 8000 feet. The lake, with a smooth carriage road round it, forms a fitting gem in the centre of the station, on which the European houses, perched on the adjacent hills, look down. A splendid vegetation, belonging to the temperate zone, but here growing with tropical luxuriance, refreshes the eyes of the traveller from the plains; delicate European plants rising into hardy shrubs, and English flowers forming hedgerows. The outdoor life is a joyous and characteristic feature of the place. Riding, driving, and all manly sports are possible. For Utakamand has a great advantage over Simla and other Himálayan hill stations, in being situated on an extensive plateau, with wide tracts of grass land, and downs suitable for roads, in its neighbourhood.

The municipality was established in 1866; and in 1877-78, its income was £3658, the rate of taxation being 3s. 11d. a head, an amount not exceeded by any other town in the Presidency. In fact, though taxed as such, Utakamand is not really a town, and the houses are scattered over the hills. The chief resident officials are the Commissioner of the District and his Assistant, and a cantonment or joint-magistrate. The number of European visitors is greatest from March to June. From November till February, when the climate is at its best, the population consists almost exclusively of permanent residents. The large number of European coffee-planters around Utakamand gives its resident society an unusual stability. The place is well supplied with churches, hotels, schools, hospitals, shops, etc. There are two banks, the Utakamand Bank, and a branch of the Bank of Madras; and two newspapers are published here. The public library (established 1859), the Lawrence Asylum (founded 1858), built by Government, and some other institutions, have been noticed under NILGIRIS DISTRICT.

The Botanical Gardens (51 acres) were opened during the Governorship of the Marquis of Tweeddale (1842-48). Their object is the improvement of horticulture by the dissemination of information, by the acclimatization of foreign plants, and by the distribution of seeds and plants. Up to 1871, they were under the Superintendent of Cinchona plantations, but are now under separate management. The Kalhatti Garden (in a warmer and drier climate) and the Barliyár Garden (8 acres, 2600 feet above the sea) are branches. The latter was bought in 1871, to extend the culture of ipecacuanha. One of the Government Cinchona plantations (the Doddabetta) is at Utakamand. The Hobart Park contains cricket and other recreation grounds. There is a good club,

and a pack of fox-hounds is kept up. The Government telegraph office at Utakamand has been for some years under the charge of a lady, the only female employed in the whole department of Government telegraphs in India. In 1878, the District jail at Utakamand had a daily average of 150 prisoners, and the European prison, 25.

Utál (or *Besí*).—Estate attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; 50 miles south-south-east of Sambalpur town. Estimated pop. (1872), 10,696, residing in 28 villages, on an area of 80 square miles. Chief products—rice, pulses, sugar-cane, cotton, and oil-seeds. Bijápur, the chief town, with a population of about 3700, has a fine tank, and a good school, attended by nearly a hundred pupils. Originally a Gond chiefship, Utal was conferred about 1820 by Rájá Mahárája Sahí of Sambalpur, with the consent of the British Government, on Gopí Koltá, whose descendant still holds it.

Utan.—Port in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay; situated on the coast, 17 miles north-west of Thána town; lat. 19° 18′ N., long. 72° 49′ E. The average annual value of trade at this port for the five years ending 1873-74 was returned at £3527 for imports, and £2624 for exports.

Utarpára.—Village in Húglí District, Bengal.—*See* UTTARPARA.

Utch.—Ruined town in Baháwalpur State, Bengal.—*See* UCHH.

Ut-hpo.—Town in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 17° 48′ N., and long. 95° 20′ 10″ E., on the Ka-gnyeng stream, 4 miles west of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), and 29 south of Myan-oung. Pop. (1877), 3826.

Ut-hpo.—Township in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; divided into 6 revenue circles. To the westward, the country is mountainous; it is low on the east, and was formerly inundated on the annual rise of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), but is now protected by embankments. Pop. (1877), 37,707; gross revenue, £9866.

Ut-hpo.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Rice cultivation is carried on in the eastern portion. Pop. (1877), 10,542; gross revenue, £2110.

Utrach.—State in the Punjab.—*See* TAROCH.

Utraula.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Gonda District, Oudh, lying between 26° 53′ and 27° 25′ N. lat., and between 82° 8′ and 82° 38′ E. long. Area, 1455 square miles, of which 899 are under cultivation; pop. (1869), 465,628, námely, Hindus, 396,963, and Muhammadans, 68,665; average density of population, 320 per square mile; number of villages or townships, 1493. This *tahsíl* comprises the 7 *parganás* of Utraula, Sadullánagar, Búrhapára, Babhnipur, Mánikapur, Balrámpur, and Túlsipur.

Utraula.—*Parganá* of Gonda District, Oudh. Bounded on the

north by the Rápti river; on the east by Basti District of the North-Western Provinces, from which it is separated by the Rápti and Suwáwan rivers; on the south by the Kuwána river; and on the west by Balrámpur *parganá*. The land is high along the banks of the Rápti, but a few hundred yards to the south it falls into a low clayey hollow. The water which overflows in the rains drains off into this hollow, forming fine rice-fields in ordinary years, or a lake some feet deep when the rainfall is excessive. South of this, the land again rises a few feet, and produces all kinds of crops, particularly winter rice. The Suwáwan runs through the centre of the *parganá;* and the tract between that river and the Kuwána on the southern border forms the commencement of what is known as the *uparhár* or elevated tableland which occupies the centre of Gonda District. Except along the edge of the rivers, which are fringed with a jungle now rapidly disappearing, the whole of this tract is under high cultivation, and the soil is the finest loam. Area, 126,438 acres, of which 74,957 acres are assessed and under cultivation. *Rabí* or spring crops occupy 44,180 acres, and the autumn and winter crops 47,350; one-fourth of the cultivated area yields a double harvest. Principal crops — winter rice of good quality, wheat, gram, barley, pulses. At the time of the re-survey of the Province, the Government assessment was fixed at £9835 in 1872-73, rising progressively to £11,574 in 1882-83. Population (1869), 72,464, namely, Hindus, 52,387, and Muhammadans, 20,077. The most numerous of the Hindu castes belong to the agricultural classes—Ahírs (8586), Kurmís (6597), and Koris (6302). The Muhammadans are nearly all Patháns or converts from Hindu low castes. Three unmetalled roads intersect the *parganá*. The chief market villages are Utraula, Chamrupur, and Bánk, the latter village containing a small sugar factory. Considerable quantities of rice and oil-seeds are exported to Nawábganj, and exchanged for coarse cloth, salt, and silver. *Kankar* or nodular limestone is quarried along the banks of the Suwáwan.

The early history of this important *parganá* is an absolute blank; although a few remains of ancient forts attest an extinct civilisation, and the village divisions and most of the local names are certainly older than the Muhammadan conquest. The founder of the existing family of Rájás was Alí Khán, a Pathán chief, who first appears as accompanying Humáyún on his expedition to Guzerat, where he incurred the displeasure of his sovereign by conniving at the escape of a Bíkaner Rájá from his beleaguered fort. Being threatened with death, he openly cast off his allegiance, and joined the old Afghán party, which, under Sher Sháh, for a time drove the house of Timúr out of India. For some years after the expulsion of Humáyún, he headed a band of predatory horse, and at length obtained by conquest the territory of Nagar in

Basti, having defeated the chieftain, a Gautama Kshattriya. After a ten years' usurpation, he himself was expelled by a rising of the Hindus, led by a son of the late chief. He next attacked Utraula, a then semi-independent principality under a Rájput chief. The town, with its large fortress and outlying defences, proved too strong to be taken by assault; and Alí Khán formed a permanent camp about two miles from Utraula, where he remained two years, plundering the surrounding country, and blockading the Hindu Rájá in the fort. At length, the beleaguered Rájput was defeated in open battle, and Alí Khán succeeded in obtaining possession of the estate.

Upon the return of the Mughal dynasty to power, the old Pathán freebooter held aloof, and absolutely refused to acknowledge allegiance. In the end, the son of Alí Khán made his submission to Akbar, and won the estate for himself by leading an army against his own father. He sent his parent's head to Delhi as a trophy, and erected a handsome tomb over the rest of his corpse. He was succeeded after twenty years by his son Dáúd Khán. During the next reign, the territories of Utraula were added to by the conquest of the forest of Burhapára from the Kalháns Rájás of Babhnipair. The house of Utraula reached the zenith of its power during the reign of Sálim Khán, who succeeded to the estate in 1659, and ruled for forty-seven years. The end of his life was embittered by domestic dissensions; and being put in peril of his life, he was induced to divide Utraula into five portions, one for himself, and one for each of his four sons. Búrhapára, as the separate heritage of the elder branch of the family, was left out of the division. Of the four sons of Sálim Khán, namely, Fateh Khán, Pahár Khán, Rahmat Khán, and Mubárak Khán, only Pahár Khán and Rahmat Khán left heirs. The shares of the other brothers, together with the villages retained for himself by the old Rájá, reverted to the head of the family, in whose hands they remained till British annexation.

Pahár Khán's son, Púrdíl Khán, died leaving an infant son, Tarbiat Khán, and during his minority affairs were conducted by his elder cousins, Mahábat and afterwards Diláwar Khán. The latter allied himself with Datt Sinh, the Rájá of Gonda, in his war with the Rájá of Bánsi, and materially contributed to his success. After several battles, the Bánsi Rájá was completely defeated, and acknowledged the Rápti and Suwáwan rivers as the boundary between his territories and Utraula. Tarbiat Khán was succeeded by his son Sadullá Khán, a man of some learning, but of weak character and quite unfit for his position. His unfortunate subjects were ground down by the exactions of the Lucknow officials; and during his rule, in 1783, the *parganá* was visited by the most severe famine on record. Barley sold at the rate of 3 lbs. for the rupee, and even well-to-do people are

reported to have subsisted on the seeds of grasses and bamboos. From deaths and emigration, the *parganá* was almost entirely thrown out of cultivation. Sadullá Khán's son, Imám Baksh Khán, died without issue three months after his accession, and a cousin of Sadullá Khán was placed upon the throne. He proved incompetent; and in his lifetime the settlement for the Government revenue was made with the village head-men. From 1804 down to the British annexation of the Province, the history of Utraula is little else than a record of internecine warfare between various claimants to the estate. On the outbreak of the Mutiny, Riásat Alí Khán engaged for the *parganá* with the rebel Begam. Soon after the restoration of British authority he died, and was succeeded by a posthumous son, the present Rájá Mumtáz Alí Khán, during whose minority the estate has been under the management of the Court of Wards. At annexation, Utraula included Sadullánagar and Burhapára, which now form distinct *parganás*.

Utraula.—Town in Gonda District, Oudh, and headquarters of Utraula *tahsíl* and *parganá*; situated 3 miles south of the river Rápti, in lat. 27° 19′ N., and long. 82° 27′ 25″ E. In the time of the original Rájput founder, the town consisted of a large brick fort, surrounded by a moat, the remains of which are still traceable, and enclosed by a circle of outlying forts. The first act of the Pathán conqueror Alí Khán was to dig a large oblong tank to the west of the town, on the edge of which stand the tombs of himself and some of his descendants. The town lands are covered with magnificent groves of mango-trees, and are divided into a number of small plots among many proprietors. Pop. (1869), 5788, of whom a large proportion are Muhammadans, chiefly Patháns. School, police station, and charitable dispensary.

Uttal (or *Besí*).—Estate in the Central Provinces.—*See* UTAL.

Uttamapálaiyam.—Town in Madura District, Madras. Lat. 9° 48′ 30″ N., long. 77° 22′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 6376, inhabiting 1235 houses. Headquarters of one of the ancient *pálaiyams* or chiefships of Madura.

Uttarpára.—A large and thriving municipal village, immediately north of Báli, situated on the Húglí river, Húglí District, Bengal. Pop. (1872), 4389; municipal income (1873), £439. Uttarpára is the family residence of the powerful and enlightened *zamíndár* Jáikissen Mukharjí. It contains a Government school, attended in 1872 by 213 boys; also one of the best girls' schools in the District, which had 49 girls on the roll in 1872. Dispensary.

Uttiranmerúr (*Ootramalore*).—Town in Chingleput (Chengalpat) District, Madras. Lat. 12° 36′ 55″ N., long. 79° 48′ E.; pop. (1871), 7441, inhabiting 1036 houses. Under Hindu and Muhammadan rule, Uttiranmerúr seems to have been an important place. During the last century it was occupied by French and English troops at various times. Station of a sub-magistrate. It contains five Siva and two Vaishnav

temples, all in ruins. The architecture of the Siva temples is curious and imposing. Telugu Roman Catholics are numerous in the neighbourhood.

Ut-tú.—Revenue circle in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 12 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 3873. Main products, rice and betel-nuts.

Uttúr.—Town in Poona District, Bombay; situated in lat. 19° 17′ N., and long. 74° 3′ 30″ E., about 50 miles north-north-west of Poona city. Pop. (1872), 6291. Towards the close of Marhattá rule, the tract of country round Uttúr was much desolated by inroads of the Khándesh Bhíls. For security against these, a high fort was built at Uttúr. In the neighbourhood are two temples, the one dedicated to *Sádhu* Keshav Chaitanya, the *guru* or spiritual preceptor of the celebrated *Sádhu* Tukárám; and the other a shrine of the god Mahádev, in whose honour an annual fair, attended by about 2000 persons, is held in August or September.

V.

Vadagen-halli.—Municipal town in Bangalore District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 18′ N., long. 77° 52′ E.; pop. (1871), 4296, of whom 203 are Muhammadans; municipal revenue (1874-75), £14; rate of taxation, nearly 1d. per head. A centre of trade, chiefly in the hands of the Lingáyats, consisting of the export and import of cotton. Weekly fair on Fridays.

Vadakarai ('*North Bank*').—Town in Madura District, Madras; situated on the north bank of the Varáhanadi river, a tributary of the Vaigai, in lat. 10° 7′ 35″ N., and long. 77° 35′ 20″ E. Pop. (1871), 5726, inhabiting 950 houses. One of the earliest created *pálaiyams* or chiefships of the old Madura kingdom.

Vádásinor.—State and town in Bombay.—*See* BALASINOR.

Vaigai (*Vygai*, *Vygay*, etc.).—River in Madura District, Madras, rising in the spurs of the Western Gháts. Its two main arms, the Vaigai proper and the Suruli (Suruliyár), join in lat. 10° 8′ N., and long. 77° 50′ E., and the united stream flows south and east into the sea at Attankarai when its volume is sufficient. Almost the whole of the water is drawn off for irrigation. The towns of Madura and Rámnád are on the banks of the Vaigai. There are no bridges over the river, except the South Indian Railway bridge near Madura. A road bridge is much wanted at the same place.

Vairág.—Town in Sholápur District, Bombay; situated in lat. 18° 3′ 42″ N., and long. 75° 50′ 45″ E., on the road connecting Sholápur town and Bársi, 28 miles north of the latter place. Pop. (1872), 7282. Post office.

Vairowál.—Municipal town in Amritsar (Umritsur) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 56′ N., long. 74° 40′ E. Pop. (1868), 5222; municipal revenue in 1876-77, £193; incidence of taxation, 8⅛d. per head of population (5958) within municipal limits.

Válájábádu.—Town and cantonment in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras.—*See* WALAJAHABAD.

Valangumán.—Town in Tanjore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 53′ N., long. 79° 25′ E.; pop. (1871), 6599.

Valavanúr (*Villenore*).—Prosperous agricultural village in South Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 11° 55′ N., long. 79° 48′ E.; pop. (1871), 7061, inhabiting 1005 houses.

Valdavúr.—Village in South Arcot District, Madras; situated in lat. 11° 58′ 50″ N., and long. 79° 44′ 30″ E., 9 miles north-west of Pondicherri. Pop. (1871), 1732, inhabiting 225 houses. Valdavúr was fortified by the French, and formed one of the supports of their capital, Pondicherri. Coote took it in 1760, when commencing the siege of Pondicherri. Valdavúr has given its name to one of the main redoubts of the Pondicherri fortifications; it is now a land custom station on the French frontier.

Valiyúr.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 8° 23′ N., long. 77° 39′ E.; pop. (1871), 9679, inhabiting 2153 houses. A place of pilgrimage.

Vallam.—Town in Tanjore District, Madras, and the residence of the Collector; situated in lat. 10° 43′ 10″ N., and long. 79° 6′ 10″ E., 7 miles from Tanjore city. Pop. (1871), 7364, inhabiting 1119 houses. Vallam was captured by the British under Joseph Smith in 1771. The quartz crystals (pebbles) found here are made into spectacles, of which the natives speak highly.

Vallemguman.—Town in Tanjore District, Madras.—*See* VALANGUMAN.

Valsád.—Port and municipality in Surat District, Bombay.—*See* BULSAR.

Valteru.—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras.—*See* WALTAIR.

Vamsadhárá (*'Bamboo Stream'*).—River rising in the Jáipur Máliyás, Vizagapatam District, Madras, in lat. 19° 55″ N., and long. 83° 32′ E.; and flowing south-south-east into Ganjám District, which it enters at Battili in the Kimedi country. Thence it follows a south-easterly course, until it falls into the Bay of Bengal at Kalingapatam. Total length, about 170 miles, for nearly half of which it is navigable by country boats. Near its mouth, the river is three-quarters of a mile broad. It is proposed to bridge it at Bhairi on the trunk road. The Vamsadhárá irrigates a large tract of Government land.

Vanarási.—Village in Kolár District, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 14′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 11′ 31″ E., 7 miles north of Kolár town. Pop.

(1871), 306. Scene of an annual festival, held for nine days from the 6th April, in honour of the god Tralappa. The number of people who assemble is estimated at 25,000, and the number of cattle brought for sale at 60,000. Scarcity of water on these occasions has been known to give rise to epidemic disease.

Vanathali.—Town in Káthiáwár, Bombay.—*See* WANTHLI.

Vanbhachran.—Town in Bannu District, Punjab.—*See* WANBHACHRAN.

Vandavasu.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras.—*See* WANDIWASH.

Vániyambádi.—Town in Salem District, Madras; situated in lat. 12° 41′ 20″ N., and long. 78° 39′ 15″ E., on the river Pálár. A sub-magistrate's station. The population of Vániyambádi in 1871 was returned at 8727, inhabiting 938 houses; but including its suburbs (Ambúrpettai, Govindupur, and others), the real town contains nearly double that number of people. Considerable trade is carried on by Musalmáns (Labbays), who form nearly one-third of the population. During the Mutiny of 1857, these Musalmáns threatened to give trouble, but the disaffection was speedily suppressed. The railway has done much for Vániyambádi; the annual gross receipts at the station amount to £11,000. Haidar Alí captured Vániyambádi in 1767, but retired before Colonel Smith in the same year.

Varada (lit. '*boon-giving*').—River of South India, tributary to the Tungabhadra. Rises in lat. 14° 6′ N., and long. 75° 7′ E., at Varadámulá near the town of Ságar in Shimoga District, Mysore; and after flowing north through Shimoga District, passes into the Bombay District of Dhárwár, and then, turning towards the east, joins the Tungabhadra at the village of Gulnatha below Havanúr. While in Shimoga District, it is crossed by 51 small anicuts or dams, from which are drawn off channels with a total length of 36 miles. According to Puranic legend, the name originated from the Bhagirathí water poured by Vishnu over the head of Siva, in order to quench the flame of austerities which the latter god was practising as atonement for an atrocious crime.

Varáhanadi (or *Panderu*).—River in Vizagapatam District, Madras. After a south-easterly course of 45 miles from its source in the Eastern Gháts, it enters the sea with the Tháradanadi at Wattada. A valuable irrigation stream, having 8 anicuts in its course.

Vastára (properly *vasu-dara*, or 'land bestowed as an endowment'). —Village in Kádúr District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 13° 14′ N., and long. 75° 47′ E., 6 miles south-west of Chikmagalúr. Until 1875, head-quarters of a *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 1304. Situated at the entrance to the hill country lying west of the Bába Budan Mountains. Founded by a king of the Humcha dynasty, it passed

through the hands of many local chiefs, until annexed to Mysore by Haidar Alí in 1763.

Vásudevanallúr.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras; situated on the Travancore road, in lat. 9° 13′ 45″ N., and long. 77° 26′ 30″ E. Founded 1030 A.D. Pop. (1871), 6844, inhabiting 1512 houses.

Vattila-gundu (the *Batlagundu* of Orme).—Prosperous agricultural village in Madura District, Madras; situated in lat. 10° 9′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 50′ 30″ E., on the main road to the Palni Hills, from which it draws its water for irrigation. Pop. (1871), 9783, inhabiting 1857 houses. In 1768, Vattila-gundu was the scene of military operations between the troops of Madura and Mysore. The latter captured it after six days' hard fighting, only to be driven out a few days later by a reinforced army from Madura.

Vayanádu. — Hill Division in Malabar District, Madras. — *See* WAINAD.

Vayatri.—Town in Malabar District, Madras.—*See* VYTERI.

Vedaganga.—River of the Deccan, tributary to the Dúdhganga, which near the northern boundary of Belgaum District, Bombay, falls into the Krishna on its right bank in lat. 16° 35′ N., and long. 74° 42′ E. Both streams rise in the Native State of Kolhápur.

Vedávati (or *Hagari*).—River of Southern India, tributary to the Tungabhadra. Formed by the junction of two streams—the Veda and the Avati—which both rise in the western slopes of the Bába Budan Mountains in Kádúr District, Mysore. The Veda is at first called the Gauri-halla, and does not assume its better known name until after it has issued from the great AYYANKERE LAKE. In a similar manner the Avati forms the Madaga-kere tank. The two streams both flow to the north-east, and unite just below the town of Kádúr. Thence the Vedávati continues its north-easterly course into the District of Chítaldrug. It receives many tributaries on its way from both sides; and after penetrating the hill-gorge of the Mári-kanive and passing the town of Hiriyúr, it turns due north, and passes into the Madras District of Bellary. Henceforth it assumes the name of Hagari, which is interpreted to mean 'freeing from the bonds of sin.' Continuing in a northerly direction, and leaving Bellary town about 10 miles to the west, it falls into the Tungabhadra just above the village of Hucha-halli. It is a shallow river, and can be forded in most parts of its course except in the rainy season. During the summer months, a large tract of sand is left dry in its bed, reaching 2 miles in width near Bellary. In this neighbourhood, it is supposed to be gradually changing its channel. It is bridged for the trunk road at Hiriyúr, and for the Bellary Branch Railway at Permadevanhalli. Apart from the two great tanks already mentioned, the river is not much used for purposes of irrigation. In Kádúr District, its entire river system irrigates 1568

acres, yielding a revenue of £3121. Lower down, its sandy bed supplies many *kapile* or sub-surface wells. A proposal has long been under consideration to embank the Vedávati at the narrow gorge of the Mári-kanive, and thus create an immense reservoir, at an estimated cost of £150,000, which would irrigate 50,000 acres in the fertile but arid plains of Hiriyúr.

Vehar.—Lake in Salsette Island, about 15 miles from Bombay, from which place it can easily be reached by road. The following account of the lake is taken from Mr. J. M. Maclean's excellent *Guide to Bombay* (1875):—

'The lake is an artificial reservoir, formed to provide the town of Bombay, which used to be wholly dependent for its drinking water on the wells in the island, with a constant and ample supply of pure water. In 1853, it was fortunately determined by the Board of Conservancy of Bombay to adopt a proposal made by Lieutenant-Colonel Crawford, R.E., and Lieutenant (now Colonel) De Lisle, R.E., to dam up the valley of the Gopur river—which ran into the Sion creek, and two centuries ago sometimes overflowed the northern part of the island of Bombay—near the sources of the river amongst the hills of Salsette. This project was carried into execution by Mr. Conybeare, C.E.; the dams were completed and the delivery of water into the town commenced in 1860. The lake covers an area of about 1400 acres, and has a gathering ground, exclusive of the area of the water surface, of about 2550 acres. It is formed by three dams, two of which were rendered necessary to prevent the water escaping over ridges on the margin of the basin, which were lower in level than the top of the main dam. The quantity of water supplied yearly by the reservoir is about 8,000,000 gallons a day, or between 12 and 13 gallons a head for the population of Bombay. It is forbidden to carry on any trade, manufacture, or agriculture within the watershed of the lake, and the wildness of the surrounding country keeps the water free from risk of any contamination from outside. For many years the water was praised as "exceedingly pure," but of late years it has deteriorated through the growth of vegetation within the lake. There are at present no means either of emptying the reservoir and cleaning it out, or of filtering its water, but the municipality has various schemes under consideration for improving the quality of the water supply. The total cost of construction of the Vehar reservoir, and of laying down the pipes to bring the water into the town, amounted to £373,650. In 1872, some alarm having been felt as to the sufficiency of the quantity of water drawn from the gathering ground of Vehar, the Tulsí Lake, adjoining it, was formed at the cost of £40,000, and the water thus impounded kept available to be thrown into Vehar. A new project has been this year (1875) sanctioned by the municipality, for bringing an inde-

pendent main from Tulsí to the top of Malabar Hill, at a cost of £400,000. This alternative source of supply will give 6 gallons a head additional each day for the whole population, besides providing water for the higher parts of Bombay, which cannot be reached by the main from Vehar.'

Vejanoness.—One of the petty States in Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £49; and tribute is paid of £3 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Vekria.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £400; and tribute is paid of £5 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Vellaikovil.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 56′ 45″ N., long. 77° 46′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 6036, inhabiting 1532 houses.

Vellar (*Vasishthanadi*).—River in Madras, formed by the streams of the Tinúnda and Kalráyan Hills in Salem District. It flows through the Attúr Pass into the plain of South Arcot, and across the latter District into the sea at Porto Novo; total length about 135 miles. A little above Vriddáchalam, it receives the waters of the Manimuktár (or Manimuktánadi), which also rise in the Kalráyan Hills. The river is bridged where it crosses the trunk roads, except near Porto Novo, and also by the South Indian Railway near Porto Novo. The trunk road bridge near Porto Novo, the chief of all, was destroyed by floods some years ago, and has not been since rebuilt. Thirteen anicuts or dams cross the Vellar in Salem District, and two in South Arcot.

Vellore (*Vellúr*, *Rayi Velliyúr*, *Ráya-ellúru*).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras; situated on the river Palár. Lat. 12° 55′ 17″ N., long. 79° 10′ 17″ E.; pop. (according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1877-78), 38,022. It is a military station, the headquarters of the Sub-Collector of the District, and a municipality; it contains courts, military offices, central jail, church, missions, hospital, also post, telegraph, and several departmental offices. The railway station is 80 miles (west) from Madras, and 15 miles (west) from Arcot. Vellore was a famous fortress in the palmy days of the Karnatic. It was built in 1500 by the Vijayanagar princes, and hither, half a century later, came the Ráyas of that house, retiring before the allied Sultáns of Bijápur and Golconda. From 1570 to 1646, the Ráyas of Vellore and Chandragiri were great potentates, from whom the European settlers sought leases and other favours. In the latter year, the Muhammadan sovereigns, following up the train of conquest begun at Tálikot, possessed themselves of these two great fortresses. In 1677, Sivají the Great captured Vellore after four and a half months' siege; and in 1710, when it was, according to Orme, the strongest fortress in the Karnatic, it was given

by Dost Alí to his son-in-law, whose son, Murtizá Alí, murdered Sabdar Alí here in 1741. For more than twenty years the fort was the stronghold of Murtizá Alí, who defied the authority of his relative and lawful chief the Nawáb of Arcot and his English allies. The latter marched against the town in 1756, but retired without making any serious effort.

Murtizá Alí held the fort till 1760, when again an English force appeared before its walls, retiring at the earnest entreaty of the *kiladár.* A few years later, however, it was occupied by an English garrison; and in 1768, was threatened by Haidar Alí. In 1780, Haidar regularly invested the place, which held out against overwhelming numbers and innumerable difficulties. A dozen times in the course of the siege there was not rice for three days' consumption, and all the energies of the Madras Government and of Sir Eyre Coote were devoted to throwing in supplies. Wilks says: 'Haidar had, after the capture of Arcot in the preceding year, allotted the largest portion of his army and his best battering train for the siege of Vellore. This fortress, nearly an exact square, still exhibiting in its antique battlements for matchlocks and bows and arrows the evidence of no modern date, was built according to the ideas of strength which prevailed at the period of its erection, when the use of cannon was little understood, close to a range of hills, to favour the introduction of supplies, or the eventual escape of the garrison; and thus situated, it is also commanded by those hills, a defect which its Marhattá and Muhammadan conquerors remedied in part by fortifying the points which overlooked it. These points, as the use of artillery came to determine the defence of places, became accordingly the keys of the fort below; for although surrounded by a rampart of masonry which might be deemed Cyclopean, and a wet ditch of great breadth, the possession of these points would command in flank and reverse (although at too great a distance for certain effect) three faces of the fort, and would leave but one face affording good cover. The arrangements of the siege, directed by French officers, were judiciously directed to two simultaneous operations, the principal hill fort being the primary object, while approaches and batteries from the west were pushed on to the proper positions for breaching the south-western face of the lower fort and enfilading that next to the hill, which, in the event of success in the primary object, would alone afford adequate cover to the garrison from the fire of the hill.' The assault, which was most gallantly and persistently delivered, was repulsed, and the siege reduced to a blockade, which the garrison, although reduced to the greatest straits, withstood for two years, till finally it was raised by the advance of an army from Madras and Haidar's death.

In 1791, Vellore was the basis of Lord Cornwallis' march on Bangalore. After the fall of Seringapatam (1799), the family of Tipú were

detained here; and to their intrigues has been attributed the revolt of the Sepoys at Vellore in 1806, when all the officers and other Europeans were massacred. The revolt was promptly put down by Colonel Gillespie, and the Mysore princes removed to Bengal. Besides its imposing and picturesque fortress, which contains many interesting buildings, Vellore possesses a handsome Vishnuvite temple with some good carving. Chanda Sáhib's mosque is also deserving of mention. The town, although hot, is healthy. The municipality has done much to improve it, and spends annually about £4500 on various works, raising taxes at the rate of 6¾d. a head. The population includes nearly 10,000 Musalmáns, and 450 Europeans and Eurasians. The garrison consists of one Native infantry regiment, about 700 strong.

Velpúr.—Town in Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 16° 41′ N., long. 81° 45′ E.; pop. (1871), 5377, inhabiting 937 houses.

Vembakottai.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 9° 20′ N., long. 77° 50′ E.; pop. (1871), 5619, inhabiting 1289 houses.

Vempalli.—Town in Cuddapah District, Madras; situated in lat. 14° 21′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 30′ 10″ E., on the river Pápaginí. Pop. (1871), 6659, inhabiting 1711 houses. A curious temple to Nandi stands on a round hill overhanging the river.

Vengurla (*Vingorla*).—Seaport and town, with fort, in Ratnágiri District, Bombay; situated 84 miles south by east of Ratnágiri town, in lat. 15° 51′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 39′ 45″ E. Pop. (1872), 14,996. The average annual value of trade at this port for the five years ending 1873-74 is thus returned:—Imports, £358,509; exports, £342,142. Piece-goods, yarn, silk, sugar, and fish are the chief articles of import; and cocoa-nuts, coir, molasses, and *káju* the principal exports. Vengurla was formerly a retreat for the sanguinary pirates who infested this coast, until in 1812 it was ceded by the chief of Sáwantwári to the British Government. The Vengurla port lighthouse (which is distinct from the VENGURLA ROCK LIGHTHOUSE—*see* following article) was erected in 1869, and is situated on the mainland at the northern point of the bay. It is a masonry tower, built on a hill. The height of the lantern above high-water is 200 feet, and that of the building from base to vane is 186 feet. It exhibits a double (one above another) white, fixed, dioptric light of order 6, which illuminates an area of 54 square miles, and is visible from the deck of a ship 9 miles distant.

Vengurla Rock Lighthouse.—This lighthouse (which is not to be confounded with the Vengurla port lighthouse, described in the preceding article), erected in 1870, is situated on an isolated rock in the west of Ratnágiri District, Bombay. Lat. 15° 54′ N., long. 73° 30′ 15″ E. It is a masonry tower, built on a rising ground. The height of the lantern above high-water is 110 feet, and that of the building is 30 feet. It exhibits a single white, fixed, dioptric light of order 4, which illuminates

an area of 72 square miles, and is visible from the deck of a ship 12 miles distant.

Venkatagiri.—Town and ancient *zamíndári* estate in Nellore District, Madras. The town (lat. 13° 57′ 7″ N., long. 79° 37′ 20″ E.) contained, in 1871, 2133 houses and 7524 inhabitants, and is the station of a deputy *tahsíldár*. The estate has an area of 2117¼ square miles, and includes the whole of the Venkatagiri *táluk*, besides large tracts in the neighbouring Government *táluks*; Darsi, Podili, and Polúr *táluks*, and part of Gúdúr, Kanigiri, and Ongole *táluks* belong to this estate. The number of villages (1871) is 726, and of inhabitants 348,370, dwelling in 60,511 houses. The estate pays to Government a *peshkash* or permanent revenue of £40,400. The present *zamíndár* claims to be the twenty-seventh in lineal descent from the founder of the family. In 1751, his ancestor assisted the English against Haidar Alí, who destroyed the town in retaliation. The family has always been distinguished for its loyalty to the British. The *zamíndár* is the chief of a large caste, the Vemálás.

Ventipur.—Village and ruins in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjáb; identified with the ancient capital of the valley; situated in lat. 33° 54′ N., and long. 75° 9′ E., near the right bank of the river Jhelum (Jhílam), 16 miles south-east of Srínagar on the Islámábád road. Thornton states that it was founded, according to local chronicles, by Avánti Varmma, King of Kashmír, about 876 A.D., who called it Avántipur, after his own name. Remains of two great buildings, known as the Venkadáti Devi and the Ventimadáti. Though extremely dilapidated, they present striking examples of early Kashmírian architecture.

Vepery.—Suburb of MADRAS CITY (*q.v.*). Lat. 13° 5′ 25″ N., long. 80° 18′ 40″ E.

Verapoli.—Town in Travancore State, Madras; situated in lat. 10° 4′ N., and long. 76° 19′ 20″ E., 9 miles north-east of Cochin; the seat of a Carmelite mission and of the Vicar-Apostolic. Dr. Day thus describes Verapoli: 'The monastery buildings occupy a large space of ground. The church was commenced about the year 1673, when the island on which it now stands was destitute both of houses and cultivation, and formed part of the territory of the Rájá of Cochin. The building consists of three straight piles of masonry, all of which (excepting the church) are two or three storeys high; their extremities face the river bank. A passage along the centre, from north to south, forms a communication between various parts of the structure. The church is situated at the northern end of the building, and is a miniature representation of Saint Peter's at Rome. It is perhaps the most exquisite little building in this part of India. In its various chapels are rude emblems of saints, and pictures of rather a primitive description. Verapoli formerly belonged to Cochin.' Verapoli gives its name to the

Vicariate-Apostolic of Verapoli, established in 1659. Though smaller in area than any of the 17 vicariates of India (comprising, in fact, only the State of Cochin and part of Travancore), it contains the largest Roman Catholic population and the greatest number of native priests. The *Madras Catholic Directory* for 1880 gives the following figures:—Roman Catholics, 234,986; priests, 407. Two-thirds of these are Roman Catholics of the Syrian rite, as also are more than three-fourths of the priests. There are only 16 Europeans—2 bishops, and 14 priests, all Carmelites. Besides these Roman Catholics, there are a large number of Syro-Nestorians or Jacobites (often spoken of as Syrian Christians).

Verasharoon.—Town in Godávari District, Madras.—*See* VIRAVASARAM.

Veráwal.—Port in the Native State of Junágarh in Káthiáwár, Bombay; situated in lat. 20° 53′ N., and long. 72° 26′ E. Pop. (1872), 10,731. (For nautical information regarding the port, see *Taylor's Directory*, p. 356.)

Vernag.—Spring in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab; situated in the south-eastern extremity of the Srínagar valley, in lat. 33° 29′ N., and long. 75° 15′ E. Described by Thornton as rising with a great volume into a basin 120 yards in circumference, built by order of Jahángír. Forms one of the chief feeders of the Jhelum (Jhílam) river.

Vesáva.—Port in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay. Lat. 19° 8′ 45″ N., long. 72° 51′ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74 returned at—imports, £11,794, and exports, £7941.

Vichhawad.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £350.

Vigái (*Vygai*, *Vygay*).—River in Madura District, Madras.—*See* VAIGAI.

Vijápur.—Estate in the Bastar dependency, Central Provinces; comprising 250 villages. Area, 170 square miles. The population consists chiefly of Koís and Telingas.

Vijápur.—Chief town of the Vijápur Subdivision of Baroda State, Guzerat. Lat. 23° 33′ 30″ N., long. 72° 48′ 10″ E.; pop. (1872), 10,032.

Vijayanagar.—Village in Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 15° 18′ N., long. 76° 30′ E.; pop. (1871), 437, inhabiting 172 houses. The proper name of this village is HAMPI, but Vijayanagar was the name of the dynasty and the kingdom which had its capital here, and was the last great Hindu power of the South. Founded by two adventurers in the middle of the 14th century, it lasted for two centuries, till its star went down at Tálikot in 1565 A.D. For a description of the ruins of the old city of Vijayanagar, which cover a total area of 9 square miles, see Murray's *Handbook for Madras*, by E. B. Eastwick (1879).

Vijayanagaram.—*Zamíndárí* and town in Vizagapatam District, Madras.—*See* VIZIANAGRAM.

Vijayanoness.—State in Káthiáwár, Bombay.—*See* VEJANONESS.

Villupuram (the *Belpore* of the old Maps, etc.).—Chief town of Villupuram *táluk*, South Arcot District, Madras, and a station on the South Indian Railway, the junction station for the Pondicherri branch, 25 miles west of Pondicherri; situated on the Trichinopoli trunk road, in lat. 11° 56′ 35″ N., and long. 79° 31′ 50″ E. Pop. (1871), 5691, inhabiting 791 houses. Villupuram was taken after a slight struggle by Captain Wood in 1760, and was held by a British garrison to intercept communication with Gingi.

Vinchúr.—Town in Násik District, Bombay; situated in lat. 20° 7′ and long. 74° 17′ E., 4 miles south-west of the Lásalgáon station, on the north-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Pop. (1872), 5321. Vinchúr was granted with other villages to the ancestor of the present chief of Vinchúr, by the Peshwá, about two hundred years ago.

Vindhyá.—A great series of mountain ranges separating the Gangetic basin from the Deccan, and forming a well-marked, although not quite continuous, chain across India. The name was formerly used in an indefinite manner to include the Sátpura Hills, south of the Narbada; and indeed certain of the Sanskrit *Puránas* apply it specially to the Sátpuras. The 'Vindhyás' are now restricted to the ranges on the north of that river. A full account of the Vindhyán series will be found in the *Geology of India*, chap. iv., by Mr. H. B. Medlicott. A very brief notice must here suffice. Popularly speaking, the Vindhyá ranges may be taken as forming the great northern wall of the triangle, whose eastern and western sides, the Gháts, run down either coast of India to an apex near Cape Comorin. The Vindhyás run eastwards from Guzerat across Málwá and the central portions of India, until their easternmost spurs abut on the valley of the Ganges at Rájmahál. The vast hill country, strictly included within this series of chains, lies between lat. 22° 25′ and 24° 30′ N., and between long. 73° 34′ and 80° 45′ E. Its elevation is from 1500 to 4500 feet in height, and nowhere exceeds 5000 feet. These ranges long formed an ethnical and political barrier between the Gangetic valley and the Deccan, and occupy a prominent position alike in the legendary history of the Sanskrit epics, and in the invasions and administrative arrangements of the Mughal Emperors. Their various sections are described in the Districts and Provinces through which they pass.

From a geological point of view, they have given their name to one of the recognised formations of India. The 'Vindhyán formation' was at first employed as a collective term for the beds in the great rock-basin, stretching in an east and west direction from Sasseram to Nímach

(Neemuch), a distance of 600 miles, and from north to south for 300 miles, from Agra to Hoshangábád. Throughout the great part of their border, the Vindhyán sandstones are unconformably related to transition or gneissic rock; but in the eastern branch of the area, in Bundelkhand and the Son valley, they rest with little or no unconformity upon thick deposits of very different character. These lower beds were at first noticed under local names in the several areas, but the convenience and fitness of having a common name for deposits so nearly related was soon felt, and the term Lower Vindhyán has been used in this sense. For purposes of scientific treatment, the Vindhyán series is divided into the Lower and Upper Vindhyáns. The Lower Vindhyáns include the Karnúl area, the Palnád area, the Bhima basin, the Mahánadi and Godávari areas, the Son area, and the Bundelkhand area. The Upper Vindhyáns arrange themselves under the Son-Narbada boundary, the boundary in Bundelkhand, the boundary on the Ganges, and the Aravalli boundary. Diamonds occur in the Upper Vindhyáns. The great majority of the diggings are alluvial; but the principal workings, upon which most labour is spent, are in a bed at the very base of the Rewah shales. There are also numerous pits, apparently surface diggings, in the gorges and on the slope of the upper Rewah sandstone south of Panna, and at a much higher elevation than any present outcrop of the bottom shales or of the Lower Vindhyás. The operations are carried on actively only during the hot weather, and, unless visited at this season, trustworthy observations cannot be made.

The Vindhyás occupy a considerable place in the mythology of India as the great demarcating line between the Madhya-desha, or 'middle land' of the Sanskrit invaders, and the non-Aryan Deccan. They are still inhabited to a large extent by aboriginal races, and the name Vindhyá in Sanskrit means also a 'hunter.' The Vindhyás are personified in Sanskrit literature, and appear as a jealous monarch, the rival of King Himálaya, who called upon the sun to revolve round his throne as he did around the peak Meru. When the sun refused, the mountain began to raise its head to obstruct that luminary, and to tower above Himálaya and Meru. The gods invoked the aid of Agastya, the spiritual guide of Vindhyá. This sage called upon the Vindhyá Mountain to bow down before him, and afford him an easy passage to and from the south. It obeyed, and Agastya passed over. But he never returned, and so the mountain remains in its humbled condition, far inferior to the Himálaya, till this day.

Vingurla.—Seaport town and lighthouse in Ratnágiri District, Bombay.—*See* VENGURLA.

Vinjamúr.—Agricultural village in Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 14° 15′ N., long. 79° 37′ 10″ E.; pop. (1871), 5674, inhabiting 1061 houses.

Vinukonda (*Innucondah*, 'Hill of Hearing').—Hill in Kistna District, Madras, with a town of the same name. Lat. 16° 3′ 30″ N., long. 79° 46′ 40″ E. An interesting hill fort, round which a number of legends cluster. Here it was that Ráma first heard of the abduction of Sítá. The town contained, in 1871, 984 houses and 4928 inhabitants. The hill (600 feet above sea level) is surrounded by a triple fortification, within which were formerly enclosed the usual reservoirs, granaries, etc.

Virajanadi.—Artificial channel drawn off from the Káveri (Cauvery) river in Mysore District, Mysore, by means of the Balmuri dam. It has a total course of 38 miles on the right bank of the river, and supplies water-power to the sugar and iron factories at Palhalli.

Viramgám.—Chief town of the Viramgám Subdivision of Ahmedábád District, Bombay, and a station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, 40 miles west of Ahmedábád city; situated in lat. 23° 7′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 7′ 15″ E. Pop. (1872), 19,661. Viramgám is a municipal town, with an income of £1400. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Virampura.—Petty State in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. The area is ½ square mile. The chief is named Nathu Khán Patháṇ. The revenue in 1875 was estimated at £70; and tribute of £10 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Virá-rájendra-pet (or *Kukluru*).—Town in the territory of Coorg, and administrative headquarters of the Yedenálknád *táluk*. Lat. 12° 12′ 34″ N., long. 75° 51′ 6″ E.; pop. (1871), 3413; municipal revenue (1875-76), £613; rate of taxation, 3s. 10d. per head. The town was founded in 1792 by Rájá Dodda Virá Rájendra, the hero of Coorg independence, on the spot where he had met General Abercromby in the preceding year. In 1805, a colony of native Christians, immigrants from the Konkan, were encouraged to settle here, under the charge of a Roman Catholic priest from Mangalore. The priest receives an annual allowance of £24 from the Government, which has also given at various times grants amounting to £400 towards the restoration of the church. The colony now numbers 313 souls, with as many more in the country round. They are all descendants of the original settlers, and are described as being in poor circumstances. The largest weekly market in Coorg is held at Virá-rájendra-pet on Fridays. There is a charitable dispensary, at which 3205 patients received relief in 1875-76; and an Anglo-vernacular school, with 62 pupils. The climate is very unhealthy. In the neighbourhood are the most extensive rice-fields in Coorg.

Víravanallúr.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 8° 27′ 30″ N., long. 78° 10′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 12,172, principally weavers, inhabiting 3237 houses.

Víravásaram (the *Verasheroon* of early historians).—Town in Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 16° 21′ N., long. 81° 40′ E.; pop. (1871), 4642, inhabiting 1018 houses. One of the earliest English settlements, founded about 1638; mentioned in records of 1650.

Viráwah.—Village in Thar and Párkar District, Sind; situated 15 miles from Nagar Párkar. Lat. 24° 30′ 30″ N., long. 70° 48′ 0″ E. Pop. (1872), 1126, viz. 167 Musalmáns, chiefly Kumbhars; 950 Hindus, chiefly of the Loháno and Oswal castes; and 9 'others.' The headquarters station of a *tappadár*, with a police outpost, Government school, *dharmsála* or travellers' rest-house, and cattle pound. Viráwah has been constituted a municipality, with a municipal revenue in 1873-74 of £59. The trade is unimportant, and the only manufacture is cutlery, chiefly knives.

Virpur.—Native State, with a town of the same name, in Káthiáwár, Bombay. Contains 12 villages; pop. (1872), 6320. The common forms of sickness are fever and small-pox. The principal products are grain and cotton. Virpur ranks as a fourth-class State in Káthiáwár; its ruler executed the usual engagements in 1807. His jurisdiction was in 1875 restored to the Thakúr, having been withdrawn in 1867 to punish his collusion with the Wágher outlaws. The present (1876-77) chief is Thakúr Suráji, a Hindu of the Járeja clan of Rájputs. He is thirty-one years old, and administers his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £2000, and pays a tribute of £411 to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh, and maintains a military force of 40 men. The family of the chief follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession. There are 2 schools, with 61 pupils.

Virpur Kharedi.—One of the petty States in Hállár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 13 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £3000; and tribute is paid of £341 to the British Government, and £69 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Viruddháchalam ('*Old Hill*').—Town in South Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 11° 31′ 30″ N., long. 79° 24′ E. Formerly the chief town of a District, and still headquarters of the old *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 5439, inhabiting 780 houses. Viruddháchalam contains a large fortified temple; and, being situated on the road from Cuddalore to Trichinopoli, it was of importance as a strategical point in the wars of the Karnatic, and changed hands more than once. Here Lord Pigott and Clive were nearly captured by the French in 1751. Viruddháchalam is a sacred town, and many legends are connected with it.

Virudupati.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras, and a station on the South Indian Railway; 71 miles from Tuticorin, and 202 from Negapatam. Lat. 9° 35′ N., long. 78° 1′ E.; pop. (1871), 5169, inhabiting 1263 houses. An active trading centre.

Virwa.—One of the petty States in Hallár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £100; and tribute is paid of £14 to the British Government, and £4 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Visákhapatnam.—District and town in Madras.—*See* VIZAGAPATAM.

Vishalgarh.—Native State in the Political Agency of Kolhápur, Bombay; its central point is situated in about lat. 16° 52′ N., and long. 73° 50′ E. Area, 235 square miles; pop. (1872), 32,414; estimated revenue, about £10,000. Lying along the eastern slopes of the main line of the Sahyádri Hills, the country is for the most part rugged, yielding little but timber and brushwood. The ruler of this State, with the rank of Pratinidhi or vicegerent, is a feudatory of Kolhápur, paying a yearly tribute of £598. Parásurám Trimbak, at that time commandant of the Vishalgarh fort, was in 1697, by Rájárám I., the younger son of Sivají the Great, raised to the rank of Pratinidhi, the highest of the original Marhattá dignities. Parásurám and his son supporting different sides in the struggle for headship (1700-31) between the Sátára and Kolhápur branches of Sivají's family, the former was created Pratinidhi of Sátára, and the latter Pratinidhi of Kolhápur. Bhagwant Ráo Abáji, the first chief brought into connection with the British Government, died in 1819. The next three succeeded to the estate by adoption. The last of these dying in 1871, left an infant. This child, Abáji Krishna Panth Pratinidhi, a Hindu of the Bráhman caste, a minor nine years of age, is (1876-77) under the guardianship of the Political Agent of Kolhápur. The family follow the rule of primogeniture. The chief maintains a retinue of 61 followers. There are 3 schools, with a total of 204 pupils. The capital of the State is Malkápur. Vishalgarh town is situated in lat. 16° 54′ 30″ N. and long. 73° 47′ E.

Visnagar (*Visalnagar*).—The chief town of the Visnagar Subdivision of the State of Baroda, Guzerat. Pop. (1872), 19,127. It was founded, according to one account, by Visal Deo, a Chauhán Rájput, in 1046; and according to another, by a prince of the same name, but of the Wághela clan, between 1243 and 1261. This town was originally the seat of Nagar Bráhmans, and gives its name to a Subdivision known as Visnagar Bráhmans.

Viswaganga.—River of Berar, having its source in Buldána District, in lat. 20° 34′ N., and long. 76° 16′ E. It flows parallel to the NALGANGA, and falls into the Púrna. The Viswaganga is not a perennial stream, but in the rains flows past Jáipur, Badnera, and Chandpur.

Vita.—Town in Sátára District, Bombay; situated in lat. 17° 17′ N., and long. 74° 34′ E., 48 miles south-east of Sátára town. Pop. (1872), 4094. It is a municipal town, with an average income of £36. Subjudge's court and post office.

Vithalgarh.—One of the petty States in Jháláwár, Káthiáwár,

Bombay. It consists of 8 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £1500. No tribute is payable.

Vittár.—River in Tanjore District, Madras, branching from the Káveri in lat. 10° 49′ 20″ N., and long. 79° 39′ E., and falling into the sea in lat. 10° 49′ 45″ N., and long. 79° 54′ 45″ E.

Vizagapatam (*Visákhapatnam*).—A British District in the Presidency of Madras, lying between 17° 14′ 30″ and 18° 58′ N. lat., and between 82° 19′ and 83° 59′ E. long. Area (including the Jáipur (Jeypore) and Vizianagram *zamíndárís*, which are under British administration), 18,344 square miles. Population (1871), 2,610,839. Vizagapatam is bounded on the north by the District of Ganjám, on the east by Ganjám and the sea, on the south by the sea and Godávari District, and on the west by the Central Provinces. It consists of 44 *zamíndárís*, and 2 Government *táluks* both situated in the south-west of the District; namely, Gollakonda and Sarvasiddhi. The administrative headquarters are at the town of VIZAGAPATAM.

Physical Aspects.—Vizagapatam forms a portion of the north maritime Province of the Madras Presidency, historically known as the Northern Circars. It is a beautiful, picturesque, and hilly country, but, in the greater part, most unhealthy. A chain of the Eastern Gháts runs through the District in an oblique direction from north-east to south-west, dividing it into two unequal portions, the larger being mountainous and the smaller flat. The higher peaks of this range attain an elevation of more than 5000 feet above the level of the sea. The slopes of the mountains on both sides are clothed with luxuriant vegetation, amid which rise many tall forest trees; while the graceful bamboo grows profusely in the valleys. This range forms the watershed of the country. The drainage on the east is carried by numerous streams direct to the sea; and the drainage to the west flows into the Godávari (Godavery), either through the Indravati or through the Sabari and Siller rivers. Along the north of the Jáipur (Jeypore) country another watershed extends, which separates the drainage between the Mahánadi and the Godávari, the sources of several tributaries of the former, particularly the Tel, its chief tributary, being found here. To the west of the Eastern Gháts is situated the greater portion of the extensive *zamíndárí* of Jáipur, which is for the most part very hilly and jungly, the fertile vale through which the Indravati flows being an exception to the character of the rest of the *zamíndárí*. The north and north-west of the District, which is chiefly inhabited by Kandhs and Sauras, is also mountainous. In the extreme north, a remarkable mass of hills, called the Nimgíris, rises to a height of 4972 feet above the sea, and these hills are separated by valleys of not more than 1200 feet from the neighbouring ranges of Gháts. The drainage from the Nimgíris flows in a south-

east direction to the sea, forming the rivers at Chicacole and Kalingapatam. The plain along the Bay of Bengal to the south-east of the Gháts is exceedingly rich and fertile. It is described as a vast sheet of cultivation, green with rice-fields and gardens of sugar-cane and tobacco. The flourishing export trade at Bimlipatam and at Kalingapatam, in the neighbouring District of Ganjám, has probably caused the cultivated area to be doubled in the course of the last twenty or thirty years. The plain near the sea-coast is diversified with hills; and an endeavour has been made, but with limited success, to convert one or other of those which are most accessible from Vizagapatam into a sanatorium. The line of coast, and the entrance to the harbour of Vizagapatam round the Dolphin's Nose, are very picturesque.

History.—The present District of Vizagapatam formed, in the early days of Hindu history, a portion of the ancient kingdom of Kalinga. It was subsequently conquered by the eastern branch of the Chálukya dynasty, which originally settled at Vengi, near Ellore, and afterwards transferred its capital to Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry). As a general rule, it had the same history as the whole maritime tract from Ganjám to the Godávari, sometimes belonging to the Gajapati Rájás of Orissa, and sometimes to the rulers of Telingána. In later times, Muhammad II., of the Bahmaní dynasty in the Deccan, assisted a claimant to gain the throne of Orissa, and received from him in return the Provinces of Kandhapalli and Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry). During the confusion consequent on the overthrow of the Bahmaní dynasty, the sovereign of Orissa recovered those Provinces; but Ibráhím, of the Kutabsháhí line, not only retook them, but also annexed to his dominions the whole country as far north as Chicacole. On the subjugation of Golconda by Aurangzeb in 1687, these northern Provinces nominally formed part of his magnificent Empire; but his sovereignty over them was merely a military occupation. They were farmed by *zamíndárs*, or governed by military chiefs. Vizagapatam was placed more directly under the Emperor's viceroy, stationed at Chicacole.

On the dissolution of the Mughal Empire, the Northern Circars passed into the possession of the Nizám of Haidarábád, who established a better revenue and judicial system than had existed hitherto, the principal Muhammadan officials being stationed at Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) and Chicacole. During the disputed succession which ensued on the death of the first Nizám, the French rendered such essential services in placing Salábat Jang on the throne, that he presented to them the four *Sarkárs* (Circars) of Mustáfanagar, Ellore, Rájámahendri, and Chicacole, as they were then called; and M. Bussy, the greatest military genius whom the French ever possessed in India, received the *farmáns* for them in 1753. After a time, M. Bussy himself assumed the government; and during one of his campaigns

the memorable siege of Bobbili occurred, which made such a deep impression on the Hindus, that it has been commemorated in ballads which are sung to this day. Gajapati Viziaráma Rázu, Rájá of Vizianagram, was at that time the most powerful Hindu noble in the Circar of Chicacole; and M. Bussy had, as a return for his services, leased that Circar and Rájámahendri to him on very favourable terms. Ranza Ráo, the Rájá of Bobbili, an estate about 140 miles north of Vizagapatam, had a hereditary feud with the Rájá of Vizianagram. The latter used all his influence to persuade Bussy to ruin the Rájá of Bobbili; and at length a suitable occasion presented itself. A French detachment was attacked by some troops of Ranza Ráo, and a French army, accompanied by a large contingent from Vizianagram, proceeded to besiege the hill-fort of Bobbili. A terrible scene ensued. Ranza Ráo and his followers were resolved not to yield; and when they perceived that resistance was vain, they put to death all the women and children in the fort, and then died fighting sword in hand, refusing every offer of quarter. An infant son of Ranza Ráo was alone rescued from this scene of slaughter. Four of his retainers, seeing their chief fall, made a vow to avenge his death. Having secreted themselves in the jungle for some time, they penetrated to Viziaráma Rázu's tent by night, and assassinated him.

After settling the government of Chicacole, Bussy returned to Vizagapatam, where he took the Factory from the English which had been established in the middle of the 17th century. In 1689, a rupture occurred between the East India Company and the Mughal Emperor owing to disputes in Bengal, and the latter ordered the possessions of the Company at Vizagapatam to be attacked; the warehouses were seized and all the English residents put to death. In the following year, a fresh *farmán* was issued, permitting the Company to have settlements at Vizagapatam and at other places on the coast. These factories had continued in the Company's possession up to the time when the French took them. The French did not keep them long. In 1759, Colonel Forde was authorized by Clive to proceed from Bengal to the Northern Circars, and co-operate with the Rájá of Vizianagram, who had become dissatisfied with the alliance which his father had entered into with the French, and had invited the assistance of the English to wrest the country from them. Colonel Forde landed at Vizagapatam on 20th October 1759. After a brief but brilliant campaign, in which he gained a decisive victory over the French in Godávari District, and took from them the fort at Masulipatam, he received from the Nizám a grant bestowing certain territory around Masulipatam on the East India Company, and prohibiting any future settlement of the French in the Northern Circars. In 1765, Lord Clive obtained an imperial *farmán* granting the Northern Circars

to the English; and in 1768, a treaty was entered into with the Nizám, who then finally ceded them. Vizagapatam, together with the rest of the Province, thus passed into the possession of the East India Company.

For the remainder of the century, the history of the District is principally connected with the fortunes of the Vizianagram family, who were all-powerful. The intrigues of Sítaráma Rázu, the Rájá's brother, and of the Diwán Jagannáth Rázu, in 1781, led to the dismissal of Sir Thomas Rumbold, then Governor of Madras, by the Court of Directors. In 1784, the Committee of Circuit, who had been appointed by Government to make an accurate and careful inquiry into the condition and resources of the Northern Circars, sent in their report on the Kásimkota Division of the Chicacole Circar. That portion of it which is now included in Vizagapatam District was divided into—(1) Havili lands, which consisted of the lands immediately under Government; (2) the Vizagapatam farms, or 33 petty villages in the vicinity of the town; and (3) the Vizianagram *zamíndári*, including the tributary estates of Andhra, Golconda, Jáipur (Jeypore), and Pálkonda. No action was taken on this report. The administration of affairs remained in the hands of the Chief and Council at Vizagapatam; but in 1794, the Provincial Councils were abolished, and the whole of the Northern Circars was divided into Collectorates, the present District of Vizagapatam being apportioned between three. Bitter disputes had continued between the Rájá of Vizianagram and his brother Sítarám Rázu, who was at last summoned by the authorities to Madras. The *zamíndári* had, however, fallen into heavy arrears of revenue, owing to the incompetence of the Rájá's management; and it was found necessary to proceed to the severe measure of sequestration. A detachment of European artillery and sepoys were sent to Vizagapatam to enforce this measure, and they took possession of the Rájá's fort at Vizianagram. The realization of the revenue was not the only reason for this step. Political reasons also influenced the Government, as the Rájá's military force was larger than was considered advisable, and he had obtained too great a preponderance of power over the other *zamíndárs* in the District. The Rájá naturally resented what he considered unjust treatment, and was vigorously supported in his opposition to Government by his supporters. He took up his quarters at Padmanábham, a village half-way between Vizianagram and Bimlipatam, where he was attacked by the military force under Lieutenant-Colonel Prendergast. He himself was slain, with several of his devoted followers, who had vowed not to desert him. This sharp but decisive action took place on 10th July 1794. After some little difficulty, a lease for his father's estate was given to Náráyana Bába, the late Rájá's youthful son. The extent of the *zamíndári* was considerably curtailed,

arrangements for their territories being made direct by Government with the hill chiefs, and part of the estate was incorporated with the Government land. The principal chief thus directly treated with by the Government was the *zamíndár* of Jáipur (Jeypore); and the various estates have, with few exceptions, remained in the possession of the same families to the present time.

In 1802, the Permanent Settlement, which had found so much favour in Bengal, was introduced into the Northern Circars. At that time there were 16 ancient *zamíndárís* in the District, the permanent assessment on which amounted to £80,258. As in other Districts of Madras, the Government land was also brought under the *zamíndárí* system; and for this purpose it was parcelled out into convenient estates, which were put up to public sale. Twenty-six estates were thus created, and these together with the 16 ancient *zamíndárís* formed the new Collectorate of Vizagapatam. The new system was very unpopular with the *zamíndárs*, who for many years after its introduction were in a chronic state of discontent and disaffection. There were continual petty disturbances. Expeditions were frequently sent into the hills against the more refractory chiefs, and not always with success, for the climate was very malarious, and the forts difficult of access. At last, towards the close of the year 1832, the disturbances in this District and in Ganjám became so serious, that the Government were compelled to order a large military force to take the field for the purpose of suppressing them. Mr. George Russell was appointed Special Commissioner, to ascertain the causes which had led to these insurrectionary outbreaks, to devise measures for their suppression, and to recommend the best policy for preventing their occurrence in future. Power was granted him to proclaim martial law in the disturbed Districts. Mr. Russell discovered that the ostensible instigators of the disturbances in Vizagapatam were two discontented individuals who had fomented the prevailing discontent. One was captured by the troops, and the other was compelled to flee from the District. There was also an insurrection at Pálkonda, which was promptly and vigorously suppressed.

At Mr. Russell's suggestion, a thorough change was made in the system under which the District was administered. It was considered unadvisable to maintain the ordinary regulations in mountainous tracts, where the authorities possessed neither police nor power; and it was determined to place the territories of the tributary chiefs exclusively under the Collector of the District, in whom the entire administration of civil and criminal justice was vested. In 1839, an Act was passed to this effect. Seven-eighths of the District, or all but the old Havíli land, was placed under the new system. The portion not included in the Agency was subordinated in judicial matters to the civil and sessions judge of Chicacole. This arrangement lasted until 1863, when the

Vizianagram and Bobbili *zamíndárís* and Pálkonda were exempted from the jurisdiction of the Agency, which now comprises only the hill tracts. Disturbances have been comparatively rare since these changes were effected. From 1845 to 1848, the hill chiefs in Golconda gave a good deal of trouble to the troops. The estate had been attached owing to the murder of the Rání, who had been placed in authority by Government. In 1857-58, there was another disturbance in this *táluk*, which was speedily put down. In 1849-50, and again in 1855-56, disturbances broke out in Jáipur. There had been frequent disputes between the Rájá and his son, which required the interference of the Governor's Agent; and he considered it advisable to take under his charge the four *táluks* belonging to Jáipur on the eastern side of the Gháts, in order to save the *zamíndárí* from falling into utter ruin. These *táluks* were restored to the present Rájá's control on his succeeding to the estate on his father's death in 1860. It was then determined to station an Assistant at Jáipur, together with an Assistant Superintendent of Police; and to bring the whole territory under the magisterial and judicial authority of the Agent, and under the regular administration of the police. This change has been effected quietly, and with no greater degree of passive resistance than could reasonably have been expected.

Recent History of the Vizianagram Estate.—As the history of the District was for the greater part of a century co-extensive with that of the *zamíndárí* of Vizianagram, it is advisable to mention here the later fortunes of that estate, though since the complete establishment of the authority of the English Government it has not exercised the influence over the whole District that it formerly did. The estate was in 1817 placed in charge of the English authorities, a very heavy debt having been incurred in unliquidated balances; but it was restored to the Rájá at the end of five years clear of all incumbrances. In 1827, the Rájá proceeded to Benares, leaving his estate again under charge of the Government; and during the minority of his son, and for a few years after he had come of age (from 1848 to 1852), it was under the care of Mr. Crozier, who managed its affairs so admirably that he restored it to the Rájá, on his coming of age, with a surplus. The present (1878) owner, though frequently an absentee landlord, has administered the estate with kindliness towards his *ráyats*, and with profit to himself. He has also taken a prominent part in public affairs, and been rewarded with the star of a K.C.S.I., and the title of Mahárájá.

Population.—The Census of 1871 returned the population of Vizagapatam District, exclusive of Jáipur, at 1,844,711. Jáipur being a hilly country, principally inhabited by uncivilised races, was treated in the matter of the Census in a different manner to the remainder of

the District. An estimate was made of the number of houses, and an average was struck for the number of inhabitants in each. The total number thus ascertained was 314,488, which, added to the above number, brings up the total population of the District to 2,159,199. Although the actual population of the entire District, including Jáipur and Vizianagram, according to the most recently published statistics (Parliamentary Abstract for 1878-79, founded on Census of 1871), numbers 2,296,351, the only details available are those obtained during the Census operations. Of the 2,159,199 persons then enumerated, 2,135,432 were Hindus, 21,030 Muhammadans, 2185 Christians, 91 Jains, and 461 'others.' The great bulk of the Hindus are Vishnuvites, 80 per cent. professing to be of that sect, while only 20 per cent. belong to the Siva sects. The Bráhmans, however, are mostly Sivaites, as also the artisans and potters. Of the 21,030 Muhammadans, three-fourths belonged to the Sunní, and only 536 to the Shía sect; 192 returned themselves as Wahábís. The Muhammadans in this District are, as a rule, in indigent circumstances, but 4·9 per cent. of them are able to read and write, against 2·2 per cent. of the Hindus. Of the Christians, 39 per cent. are Protestants and 61 per cent. Roman Catholics; the former had increased 67 per cent. during the five years preceding 1871. The Bráhmans form only 2·4 per cent. of the population; the Velamas, a high caste, 37·9 per cent. More than half the population live by the soil, and of these upwards of two-thirds are members of the cultivating castes. Nearly 30,000 are weavers. Very few are employed in learned professions, and, of course, the greater number of these are Bráhmans. The artisans who work in metals, etc., form a very exclusive guild, into which outsiders cannot obtain admission. Wild tribes, mostly of Dravidian origin, are very numerous in Vizagapatam. They chiefly inhabit the hill country of Jáipur and the uplands which stretch through the District into Ganjám. Several castes of Aryans from Orissa and the plains of the Northern Circars have settled in this tract, among whom are a great many Uriyá Bráhmans. The *zamíndárs* are of the Kshattriya caste, and their retainers are chiefly Paiks (Páyaks) or hereditary fighting men, who have now in many instances settled down into industrious cultivators. The aboriginal tribes are very numerous, consisting chiefly of Kandhs, Gonds, Gadabás, and Kois. Where they have come into contact with Hindus, the cultivating Kandhs call themselves Prajas (or *ráyats*). They are thrifty, hard-working agriculturists, undisturbed by the intestine broils which agitate the more turbulent Kandhs of the north. They entertain an unconquerable love for their native soil, and regard themselves, and are regarded by the *zamíndárs*, as the owners of it. This same race is found in the extreme north of the District as Gonds; farther south as Batias, Kandha Doras, Kandha Kápus (Telugu names signifying

'Lords of the Hills,' and *ráyats*), Matiyás, and Kois. Their dialects are similar, and indicate an identity of origin. The tribes who inhabit the more mountainous parts of the Jáipur country are more manly and civilised than the others, and when treated with respect soon throw off their wildness, and become hard-working members of society. The Kandhs were formerly addicted to the barbarous rite of *Meriah*, or offering human sacrifice, which the English Government has suppressed. Another primitive tribe, called the Sauras, inhabit the hills and slopes behind Pálkonda and to the east of Gunapur.

There is a Protestant mission at the town of Vizagapatam in connection with the London Missionary Society. In 1869, there were about 100 native converts there, and others at the out-stations of Vizianagram and Chittivalsa. This mission maintains an Anglo-vernacular school for boys, a boarding-school for girls, and a day-school for high-caste girls. There is also a Roman Catholic mission, which maintains 2 orphanages, a boys' school, and 3 girls' schools in the convent, and 1 in the fort.

Agriculture.—The maritime plain and some of the valleys in the uplands are very fertile. The principal 'wet' crops are rice and sugar-cane; the chief 'dry' crops, indigo, cotton, *rágí*, *júm*, *korra*, and gingelly oil-seed. An attempt was made by Messrs. Arbuthnot & Co., who rented the *táluks* of Pálkonda and Honzaram, to improve the cultivation of sugar-cane, and to introduce cotton into these *táluks*, but without success. The native method of cultivating the cane was found better adapted to the country, and cotton would not grow, the climate being too damp for it. The cultivation of indigo, however, has proved a great success. In 1865-66, 21,591 acres were cultivated with cotton, 3050 with indigo, and 7306 with sugar-cane throughout the District. Rice is the staple product of the country. The chief sources of irrigation in the Government *táluks* are the Varáhanadi and Sháradanadi rivers, and two large natural lakes called the Komoravolu and Kondakirla Avas. Across the Varáhanadi, there are 3 anicuts or dams belonging to Government, and 4 belonging to the proprietors through whose lands the river flows. The Gubbada anicut, near Narsapatnam, the Principal Assistant's headquarters, is of great service in supplying the great tank there, and in ensuring water for the cattle all the year round, as well as in furnishing irrigation to the crops. Irrigation in the southern part of the Government *táluks* is dependent on the Sháradanadi, across which 6 anicuts have been constructed. There are, besides, 560 tanks in these *táluks*. The *zamíndárí* tracts are supplied by mountain streams and tanks. Prices of grain have risen very considerably during the last few years. The rate of wages has also risen, but not in the same proportion.

Manufactures and Trade.—The only manufactures in the District

worthy of notice are cotton cloths and the beautiful fancy wares of Vizagapatam town. A special cloth called *panjam* is manufactured at the villages of Anakápalle, Paikaroupeta, Nakkapilli, and Turir, and a profitable trade in this commodity is carried on. The term *panjam* means 120 threads; and the cloth is denominated 10, 12, 14, up to 40 *panjam*, according to the number of times 120 threads are contained in the warp. The brown *panjam*, intended for exportation to foreign countries, is of a heavier texture, and is usually dyed with indigo at Madras before being exported. Cloth woven at Vizagapatam and Chicacole, and exported from this District, is in much request at Madras and throughout the south. Table-cloths, towels, and *dungaris* are also manufactured in the District. The town of Vizagapatam is celebrated for ornamental articles made of ivory, buffalo-horn, porcupine quills, and silver. Work-boxes, chess-boards, card-cases, and every variety of articles of vertu for the drawing-room are made out of these materials, and are reckoned among the purest of the native manufactures in India. The total value of the sea-borne export trade of the District averages £200,000 a year, and that of the import trade, £75,000. The exports consist chiefly of piece-goods, seeds, hides, horns, sugar: the imports of stores from Madras; raw cotton, twist, and thread, metals, saltpetre, and gunnies from Calcutta; and teak from Maulmain. The chief articles brought from the hills into the low country are iron from Jáipur, horns for ornamental work, beeswax, honey, and other jungle products. The roads in the District are very bad. The only imperial line is the Great Northern Trunk Road from Madras to Calcutta, which passes through the whole length of the District. There are a few cross lines, which have been constructed of late years, but they are not nearly adequate to the requirements of trade.

Administration.—The total revenue of the District in 1875-76 was £241,191; the land revenue contributing £139,790, of which nearly £100,000 is paid by the *zamíndárs* as their *peshkash* or permanent assessment, the Mahárájá of Vizianagram alone contributing one-half of this amount. In seasonable years, the *ráyatwárí táluks* bring in something over £17,500. There are both regular and extraordinary legal tribunals in Vizagapatam. In 1837, after the disturbances in the hill country, the territories of the *zamíndárs* in that part of the District were exempted from the jurisdiction of the ordinary courts, and placed exclusively under the Collector, in whom was vested the entire administration of civil and criminal justice, with the title of Agent to the Governor of Fort St. George. The portion of the District not included in the Agency was subordinated in judicial matters to the Civil and Sessions Judge of Chicacole, with a subordinate court at Vizagapatam, and a District *munsif* at Ráyávaram. This arrangement

lasted until 1863, when the jurisdiction of the various courts was re-adjusted, the circumstances of this District and Ganjám having changed, and the tranquillity of both having been assured. A new Civil and Sessions Court was established at Vizagapatam, and the Vizianagram and Bobbili *zamíndáris*, with Pálkonda, were placed under its jurisdiction. On 1st January 1865, a further contraction of the limits of the Agency was effected in consideration of the heavy additional duties devolving on the Collector by the direct charge of the large *zamíndári* of Jáipur, which had been assumed just two years before. The Agency at present consists of Jáipur, with those portions of the *zamíndáris* of Mádugula, Pánchipenta, Kurupám and Merangi which lie within the hills, and the hill *mutas* of Pálkonda and Golconda, and the hill *zamíndári* of Kásipur. Six *Munsif's* Courts are now subordinate to the District Court. These are located at Yellamanchili, Vizagapatam, Bimlipatam, Vizianagram, Rájam, and Párvatípur. The criminal work both of the Sessions Court and of the Agency is very heavy. Among the lawless and wild population of the hills, murder is common, and this is the principal serious crime in the District.

The police force consists of 1552 constables, 34 inspectors, and 2 European officers, showing, on an average, 1 policeman to every 1000 inhabitants and to every 12 square miles of country. The entire cost of the force averages less than 3d. per head of the population. In 1862, the regular police system was introduced into Jáipur. Much tact and circumspection were required at first, as the Rájá was naturally jealous of the change, and the people were suspicious; but it has now taken firm root in that region. A large proportion of low-country men were employed in the first instance, but natives of the hills have since been engaged in greater numbers, the climate having proved most prejudicial to the health of strangers. The only occasions on which the police have been brought into collision with the people have been the petty insurrections in the Saura country in August 1864 and December 1865. The jail is situated in a healthy locality outside the town of Vizagapatam. It is intended to hold 172 prisoners, those who are condemned to sentences for long terms being sent to the central jail at Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry). Hillmen are sent to the new prison at Párvatípur, which was built to hold 100 men. The mortality in this class when they were confined in a jail near the coast had been most deplorable.

In the matter of education, Vizagapatam has always been backward. There were, in 1876, 321 schools in the District, with 8424 pupils, or 3·9 pupils to every thousand of the population. The teachers in the chief towns in the *zamíndári* of Vizianagram are paid by the Mahárájá, but nothing more is attempted than elementary instruction. At Vizianagram itself, there is a school ranking with a *zilá* school, and the

Mahárájá has also founded a Sanskrit seminary there. Bimlipatam possesses an Anglo-vernacular school, and Vizagapatam a normal school, in which, in 1876, there were 25 normal students and 41 in the practising department. Twenty lower-class schools are maintained out of the local funds, with 477 pupils.

There are 3 municipalities in the District, namely, VIZAGAPATAM TOWN, BIMLIPATAM, and VIZIANAGRAM. Vizagapatam includes the suburb of WALTAIR, where the European inhabitants chiefly reside. It extends about 3 miles along the coast, and the climate is more salubrious than at Vizagapatam itself, near which there is a large marsh. A commodious municipal hall has been erected at Vizagapatam; a library, a reading-room, and a young men's literary institute being connected with it. There is an excellent hospital and dispensary, which has received munificent support from the Mahárájá of Vizianagram. Adjoining the hospital is a poorhouse, etc.; further on a lunatic asylum, maintained by Government. The municipal income for 1875-76 was £2738. Bimlipatam, one of the most important commercial towns on the coast, has improved wonderfully in every way during the last few years. Several English and French firms are established there; and it is one of the ports at which, with Vizagapatam, the British Steam Navigation Company's steamers touch on their way to and from Calcutta and Burma. The tonnage that entered the port increased from 10,701 tons in 1852-53 to 83,760 tons in 1865-66. The municipal receipts were £1506 in 1875-76. Bimlipatam can boast of a hospital, a church, a school-house, a municipal reading-room, and a town clock. A regiment of Native infantry is stationed at Vizianagram.

Medical Aspects.—From the conformation of the District it naturally follows that there are great varieties of climate. Along the coast, the air is soft and relaxing, the prevailing winds being south-easterly. Land winds are very rarely experienced. A few miles inland, the climate becomes drier and hotter, like that of the more southern Districts. Above the Gháts, the nights are generally cool, and in the cold weather a fire even is agreeable. The monsoon is very heavy, and the climate malarious. The annual rainfall at Vizagapatam averages 33 inches. The most prevalent disease is malarious fever. No portion of the District can be said to be entirely free from it, though it appears only in a mild form along the coast; but in the hill tracts it assumes the type known as jungle or bilious remittent fever, and its effects are unfortunately often felt for years after the first attack. Change of climate is the only effectual remedy. Both cholera and small-pox are very prevalent. *Beriberi* is endemic in the plains, especially where the country is damp and swampy. Leprosy and elephantiasis are common near the coast. But, on the whole, Vizaga-

patam is a favourite District, being easily accessible by sea, and generally favourable to the European constitution.

Vizagapatam (*Visákha-pattanam*, 'City of Visákha,' *i.e.* Kárttikeya or Subhramanya, the Hindu Mars).—Chief town of Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 17° 41′ 50″ N., long. 83° 20′ 10″ E.; pop. (1871), 32,191. A municipal and seaport town, headquarters of a military division, with the courts of the District Judge, Magistrate, and Sub-Magistrate, jails, police, post and telegraph offices, churches, several missionary establishments, numerous schools and hospitals, 2 orphanages, lunatic asylum, and poorhouse. Vizagapatam is the residence of a Roman Catholic Bishop (Vicar-Apostolic). The town is situated in a small bay, the south extremity of which is bounded by a promontory known as the Dolphin's Nose, and its northern extremity by the suburb of Waltair. To the west lies a large swamp, which is being reclaimed by the Roman Catholic missionaries of the town. The town or fort, as it is called, is separated from the Dolphin's Nose by a small river, which forms a bar where it enters the sea, but is passable for vessels of 300 tons during spring-tides. Two ferries ply between the north and south sides of the river. Within the fort are the European infantry veteran company barracks, arsenal, sessions court-house, church, and other public buildings.

The municipality (founded in 1858), with a revenue of £2200, and a taxation at the rate of about 1s. 4d. per head, has done much for the town. Besides valuable sanitary reforms and street improvement and lighting, it has built a handsome hall, library, and reading-room, and maintains 22 schools. The town has been fortunate in its neighbour the Mahárájá of Vizianagram, who has richly endowed its hospital, and otherwise assisted with his purse and goodwill.

The city is said traditionally to have been founded by an Andhra king, Kulottanga Chola, about the middle of the 14th century. With the rest of the Kalinga country, it fell to the Musalmán invader, and formed part of the Chicacole Circar when European adventurers first appeared on the scene. About the middle of the 17th century, the East India Company established its factory, which in 1689 was seized, and the factors murdered. But the following year it was restored, and soon after, its first fortification was erected. This withstood a short siege by the local Naib in 1710, and in 1726 its garrison was raised to 30 soldiers. Vizagapatam seems to have enjoyed exceptional immunity from the marauding bands that harassed the country during the 18th century. Neither Jafar Alí nor his Marhattá mercenaries (who sacked Bimlipatam, and harried the whole countryside) touched Vizagapatam; and save for a few months in 1757, when Bussy occupied the town, the Company had undisturbed possession. The Rájá of Vizianagram took it from the French, and restored it

to Colonel Forde in 1758. With the exception of the Sepoy Mutiny in 1780, there has been no important historical event at Vizagapatam for more than a century. As a seaport, it is gradually increasing in business. The number of ships that entered in 1876-77 was 417, with an aggregate burthen of 373,472 tons; value of imports, £57,992, and of exports, £134,769. The imports consist chiefly of piece-goods and metals from England. The principal exports are grain and sugar. In considering the tonnage, however, it should be remembered that the coasting steamers help materially to raise the figure. The special industries of the town—elk horn and ivory knick-knacks, and silver filigree-work—are well known.

Viziadrug.—Port in Ratnágiri District, Bombay; situated 30 miles south of Ratnágiri town, in lat. 16° 33′ 40″ N., and long. 73° 22′ 10″ E. Annual average value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £18,796, and exports, £22,523.

Vizianagram (*Vijaya-nagaram*, 'City of Vijaya'). —One of the most ancient and extensive estates or *zamíndáris* in India, included in Vizagapatam District, Madras. It is about 8000 square miles in extent, and contains (according to the Census of 1871) 1238 villages, with 187,254 houses and 846,205 inhabitants. The present (1878) *zamíndár* (Mahárájá Púsapáti Viziaráma Gajapati Rázu, K.C.S.I.) claims descent from Mádhanavarma, who led a Rájput colony into the Kistna valley in 591 A.D., and whose descendants were important Sardárs at the Court of Golconda. In 1652, one of these, Púsapáti Mádhanavarma, entered Vizagapatam, where he and his successors down to the celebrated Viziaráma Rázu, the friend of Bussy, gradually added one stretch of country to another, till the Púsapáti became the most powerful family in the Northern Circars. Pedda Viziaráma Rázu (so called to distinguish him from his ill-fated grandson, who fell at Padmanabham in 1794) seems to have succeeded his father about 1710. In 1712 he removed his capital from Polnúr to Vizianagram, which he called after his own name. For several years he occupied himself in building a fort at that city, and gradually extending his dominions. In 1754, he first allied himself with Jafar Alí Khán, the Chicacole Faujdár, but deserted him for the more profitable alliance of the French under Bussy, by whose assistance he was enabled to compass the death of his hereditary enemy the *zamíndár* of Bobbili in 1757. His triumph was short-lived, however, for three nights after the battle Viziaráma Rázu was assassinated in his tent by two followers of Bobbili.

His successor, Ananda Rázu, smarting under some slight, reversed the policy of his father, and marching on Vizagapatam (at that time in the hands of a French garrison), captured it and made it over to the English (1758). On the arrival of Forde's column from Bengal,

Ananda Rázu accompanied it in its victorious march on Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) and Masulipatam. On the return journey, he died, and was succeeded by an adopted son—a minor—Viziaráma Rázu, who for many years was entirely in the hands of his half-brother Sítárám Rázu, a clever, unscrupulous, and grasping character. In 1761, he attacked Parla Kimedi, defeating the forces of that State with their Marhattá allies near Chicacole, thereby acquiring a considerable accession of territory, and carried war southward into Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) with similar results. At this time, besides the large State of Vizianagram, governed directly by the Púsapátis, Jáipur, Pálkonda, and 15 other large *zamíndárís* acknowledged the Rájá as suzerain. Sítárám ruled with great resolution and tenacity, paying his *peshkash* of £30,000 with punctuality, and making capital of his loyalty to the Company, so as to procure, among other advantages, the assistance of British troops for the suppression of his turbulent hill feudatories. By these means the Púsapatis were yet further aggrandized in power and prestige. Naturally, the absolute authority which Sítárám acquired was irksome to his brother the Rájá, and was found intolerable by the many Razavárs or chiefs, who petitioned persistently for his removal in favour of another Díwán, Jagannáth Rázu. But Sítárám had managed his affairs too well, and had secured too many influential officials both in the Circars and at Madras itself to be easily ousted. All the remonstrances of the Court of Directors at home were unavailing; and it was not till after several accusations of corruption had been brought, and it was found necessary to remove the Governor of Madras (Sir T. Rumbold) and two members of Council (1781) as a consequence of this petty quarrel, that Sítárám's star began to set. In 1784, the Circuit Committee reported on the District, bringing to notice that Vizianagram with his feudatories maintained a standing army of over 12,000 men, which was reasonably held to be a source of danger to the Company. The only immediate result of this report was the temporary retirement of Sítárám. In 1790 he returned for a while, but in 1793 he was summoned to live at Madras, and from that time disappears from local history. Viziaráma Rázu, from long desuetude, found himself unequal to the task of governing the country and paying his *peshkash*. He fell into heavy arrears, and things going from bad to worse, despair making him insolent, he declined to obey a Government summons, and prepared to fight, resolving (to judge from his attitude and words), if he could not live and reign like a Púsapati, to die like one. On the 10th June 1794, Colonel Prendergast attacked him at Padmanabham, and completely routed his army after three-quarters of an hour's fighting. The Rájá himself and many of his greatest chiefs were among the slain.

After protracted negotiations, the new Rájá, a minor, surrendered, and a fresh *kául* or charter was given to him. The hill chiefs were removed from his control, and treated with directly by the Government; and some parts of Vizianagram were absorbed into the Havíli or Government Demesne lands. On the reduced Vizianagram *zamíndárí*, a *peshkash* of £60,000 was imposed. In 1802, the permanent settlement was made; and at that time the *zamíndárí* contained 24 *parganás* and 1157 villages. The *peshkash* was fixed at £50,000. Náráyana Bábu, the son of Viziaráma Rázu, who had succeeded in 1794, died heavily in debt at Benares in 1845, having left his estates in the charge of Government for about half of his rule. His successor continued this arrangement for seven years, and in 1852 took over the management from Mr. Crozier. The estate was then in a most flourishing condition, and had a credit balance of over £20,000.

The Rájá proved himself worthy of his high place. An accomplished and liberal man, he has fulfilled the duties of his position in a manner rarely equalled by an Indian prince. In 1863, he was nominated a member of the Legislative Council of India. In 1864, he received the title of Mahárájá, to which the prefix of His Highness has since been added. He is a K.C.S.I.; and in 1877, at the Imperial Proclamation, his salute was raised to 13 guns. The Mahárájá's reign has been marked by many enlightened measures. Roads, bridges, hospitals, and various town improvements have been among his works. He has spent over £100,000 on works of charity and usefulness, chiefly within his Ráj and at Benares, although in Madras, Calcutta, and even in London there are monuments of his liberality. At present he gives annual subscriptions of over £10,000 to charitable and educational institutions. [The Mahárájá died in 1878, and was succeeded by a son born in 1850, who, like his father, lives mostly at Benares.]

The *zamíndárí* (within Vizagapatam District) is divided for revenue purposes into 11 *táluks*, and the system of administration is based on the Government practice in adjoining tracts. There are about 30,000 tenants with *pattás* or leases, and 10,000 sub-tenants. The area under the plough is about 275,000 acres; the rates of rent vary from 10s. to £1 per acre for 'wet' land, and 5s. to 10s. per acre for 'dry' land. Thirty years ago, the land revenue realized was about £100,000 per annum; it is now nearly £180,000. The population is almost entirely Telugu-Hindu. The only town is VIZIANAGRAM, but there are several large and thriving agricultural villages. The estate is well supplied with roads, schools, and hospitals, in which matters the Vizianagram Ráj will compare favourably with any part of India.

Vizianagram (*Vijaya-nagaram*, 'City of Vijaya,' name of its founder).—Chief town of Vizianagram *zamíndárí*, Vizagapatam District, Madras; situated in lat. 18° 6′ 45″ N., and long. 83° 27′ 20″ E.,

17 miles north-west of Bimlipatam. Pop. (1871), 22,607, inhabiting 5033 houses. Vizianagram is the residence of His Highness the Mahárájá, a military cantonment, the headquarters of the senior Assistant Collector, and a municipality; with a municipal revenue averaging £1200, and a taxation of 3¾d. per head. It is a well-built town, with tiled and terraced houses, and contains a fine market (commemorating the visit of the Prince of Wales to India), a town-hall and other public institutions, the gift of the Mahárájá. Mr. Carmichael thus describes the place: 'At the distance of one mile from the cantonment, which is placed on ground sloping gently to the northward, are the fort and town, and lying midway is a large tank, which contains water at all seasons of the year. The fort is entirely occupied by the palace and buildings of the Mahárájá. The station contains about 20 officers' houses; the compounds are very prettily laid out in gardens, and surrounded with trim hedges. There is a small church; a chaplain is allowed for the station, but he is required to visit Bimlipatam and Chicacole two Sundays of each month. The climate is generally salubrious, though at some seasons of the year it is less so than at others.'

Vonipenta (*Vanipenta*).—Town in Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras. Lat. 14° 46′ 30″ N., long. 78° 49′ 10″ E.; pop. (1871), 6293, inhabiting 1133 houses.

Vontimitta (*Wontimetta*, 'Lonely Hill'). — Town in Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras, and a station on the railway. Lat. 14° 24′ N., long. 79° 5′ E.; pop. (1871), 4943, inhabiting 918 houses. Vontimitta has a large pagoda and a tank of some importance. The pagoda is dedicated to Kodandarámáswámí, and is said to have been built by one of the Chitvail Rájás 300 years ago. If, however, the inscription of Gandikota is to be believed, it must have been built by a member of the Vijayanagar dynasty in the 14th century. The neighbourhood is noted for the produce of indigo and turmeric.

Vreddhachellam.—Town in South Arcot District, Madras.—*See* VIRUDACHALAM.

Vútukúr (vulgarly *Utookoor*).—Agricultural village in Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras. Lat. 14° 10′ 40″ N., long. 79° 14′ E.; pop. (1871), 6424, inhabiting 2787 houses. The village has a fine tank.

Vygai.—A variously spelt river in Madura District, Madras.—*See* VAIGAI.

Vypín (*Waipey*).—Subdivision of Cochin State, Madras. Lat. 9° 58′ 30″ N., long. 76° 18′ 20″ E. Vypín was formerly an island, but is now a long narrow strip of land lying between the sea and the back-water, and separated from Cochin proper by the mouth of the river. Its southern extremity belongs to the British. In the north is the fort of Ayakotta. It contains a quaint Roman Catholic Church, built

in 1666. The Zamorin of Calicut was defeated here in 1503; and throughout the Travancore wars with Mysore (Maisúr) this island was a disputed point.

Vyteri (*Vythiri*).—Town in Malabar District, Madras. The chief town of the South Wainád coffee country, situated near the head of the Támracheri *ghát*, down which the coffee is conveyed to the coast. Lat. 11° 32′ 30″ N., long. 76° 6′ E.; pop. (1871), 8637. A sub-magistrate's station, with a considerable European community.

W

Wadal.—One of the petty States in Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £255; and tribute is paid of £15 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Wadali.—One of the petty States in Hállár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £200; and tribute is paid of £24 to the British Government, and £7 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Wadgáon.—A town in the Native State of Kolhápur, Bombay. Lat. 16° 50′ 10″ N., long. 74° 22′ 2″ E.; pop. (1872), 5027.

Wadháwan.—One of the petty Bhíl States in Khándesh, Bombay. —*See* DANG STATES.

Wadhwán.—Native State in Káthiáwár, Bombay. Area of the State, 238 square miles; pop. (1872), 45,431; number of villages, 30. The soil is black and light, in about equal proportions. The country is flat, and is irrigated to some extent. There is a river at Wadhwán town, but it is dry in the hot season. The climate is hot, but healthy; the commonest form of sickness is fever. Cotton and the usual grains are grown; salt and country soap are the chief articles of manufacture, but weaving and dyeing are also carried on to a considerable extent. Before the opening of the Bombay Baroda and Central India Railway to Wadhwán, its surplus produce was exported from the port of Dholera. Wadhwán ranks as a second-class State in Káthiáwár; its ruler, like other Káthiáwár chiefs, entered into the usual engagements in 1807. He has power to try for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent, his own subjects only. The present (1876-77) chief is a minor of sixteen, and is under tuition at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot. He is a Hindu of the Jhála clan of Rájputs. His name is Dájiráj, and his title Thakúr Sáhib. He enjoys an estimated revenue of £35,000, and pays a tribute of £2869 jointly to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh. During the minority of the chief, the affairs of the State

have been under the management of the British Government. There are 9 schools, with a total of 732 pupils.

Wadhwán.—Chief town of Wadhwán State; situated on the Bombay Baroda and Central India Railway, in lat. 22° 42′ N., and long. 71° 44′ 30″ E. Pop. (1872), 17,389.

Wadnagar.—The chief town of the Wadnagar Subdivision of the State of Baroda, Guzerat; situated 9 miles north-east of Visnagar. Pop. (1872), 15,914. According to some accounts, Wadnagar was founded by a prince of the Solar dynasty, who abandoned his kingdom, of which Ayodhya was the capital, in 145 A.D., and wrested a dominion from a prince of the Pramara race. This town gives its name to a section of Nagar Bráhmans.

Wághári.—River rising south of Yeotmál in Wún District, Berar. For a short distance it flows east, and then turning south, passes on among ravines and rocks for about 40 miles, until it joins the Painganga (Penganga). The Wághári is not navigable.

Wagwári.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £120; and tribute is paid of £13 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £1, 18s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Wái.—Chief town of the Wái Subdivision of Sátára District, Bombay; situated 20 miles north by west of Sátára town, and 15 miles east of Mahábleshwar, in lat. 17° 56′ 50″ N., and long. 73° 56′ E., on the river Krishna. Pop. (1872), 11,062. A place of Hindu pilgrimage. Wái is a municipality, with an income of £480. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Waigáon.—Town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces; situated 8 miles south of Wardhá town, on the Wardhá valley road. Pop. (1872), 2257, chiefly cultivators of the Telí and Kumbí castes, with a few weavers. The town is built on the top of a stony slope; water is sometimes very scarce in the hot season. An annual fair is held during the *Dasahara* festival, in honour of the god Bálájí, to whom there is an old temple of considerable local repute. *Sarái* (native inn) and village school.

Wainád (correctly *Vayanád*, more commonly *Wynaad*).—Highland Division of Malabar District, Madras, lying between 11° 27′ and 11° 58′ N. lat., and between 75° 50′ 45″ and 76° 41′ E. long.; containing (in 1871) 16 *amshoms* or parishes, 11,061 houses, and 125,827 inhabitants, and covering an area of 1180 square miles. The Wainád consists of a table-land amid the Western Gháts, 60 miles long by 30 broad; average height above sea level, 3000 feet. Bounded on the north by Coorg; on the east by Mysore (Maisúr); on the south by the Nílgiris and Ernád *táluk*; and on the west by Calicut, Kurumbranád and Kottayam *táluks* of Malabar.

The most characteristic features in the configuration of the Wainád

are low ridges with sharp peaks (rising in some places to the height of 5000 and 6000 feet), and extensive valleys. Towards the east, where it merges into the tableland of Mysore, the country becomes flatter. In the south-east, the Gháts are low, till they meet the Nílgiris near Neddivattam, whence they fall in magnificent slopes to the low country. The forests abound with game, and are rich in teak, blackwood, and other timber trees. The principal rivers are the Kabbani and Moyár. The climate is moist, and for eight months of the year, cool and pleasant for Europeans. The fever, for which the Wainád was once notorious, has become less prevalent with increased clearing. The rainfall averages about 130 inches in the year. Rice, horse gram, *rágí*, and many other kinds of grain are cultivated on the slopes; but the chief product of the Wainád is coffee. There are at present about 35,000 acres under this shrub, and the cultivation area is yearly increased. The total value of the coffee estates is probably over 2 millions sterling.

A new outlet for European capital and energy has been recently found in the gold region of the Wainád. Investigations into the value of the quartz reefs have been made at intervals during this century, but it was not till within the last few years that companies were started with European capital to crush the quartz on scientific principles. The results, so far, have not been conclusive, but the prospects are encouraging. The following brief account is condensed from a valuable paper by Mr. R. Brough Smith, who was deputed by the Government of Madras to examine and report upon the prospects of gold-mining in Southern Madras.

Gold seems to be almost universally distributed throughout the soils and quartz veins of the Wainád. In South-east Wainád, on washing a few dishes of the surface soil anywhere, specks of very fine gold will be found; in the vicinity of the reefs rather heavy gold is frequently obtained by sluicing; and if a suitable spot be selected, the native miners, even by their rude methods, get sufficient gold to remunerate them for their labour. The character of the rocks, the nature of the climate, and the formation of the country, have all contributed to prevent the accumulation of drifts such as are found in California and Australia. From the appearance of the mines and the soil on the slopes of the hills, it is almost certain that gold was worked in Malabar from a very early period. The industry, however, has no history. In 1831, a British officer was appointed to search for gold in the mountains of the Malabar coast, but two years afterwards the efforts were abandoned by Government; and it was not till 1865 that a planter applied for and obtained leave to search for gold on Government land. His example was followed by others, and companies were formed to work the gold fields, but the results, from various causes, proved unsatisfactory, and the works were brought to a stand. Mr. Brough Smith, in his report

to the Government of Madras, dated 30th October 1879, minutely describes the various auriferous tracts in the Wainád, and gives at detail his professional opinion as to the causes of the failure of the previous attempts to work the mines. He publishes results of 137 different assays, and thus summarizes his views concerning the future prospects of the industry in a concluding paragraph of his report:— 'The reefs are very numerous, and they are more than of the average thickness of those found in other countries; they are of great longitudinal extent, some being traceable by their outcrops for several miles; they are strong and persistent, and highly auriferous at an elevation of less than 500 feet above the sea, and they can be traced thence upwards to a height of nearly 8000 feet; near them gold can be washed out of almost every dish of earth that is dug: the proportion of gold in some of the soils and reefs in the neighbourhood of Devála is large; and, the country presenting the greatest facilities for prosecuting mining operations at the smallest cost, it must be apparent to all who have given attention to this question, that sooner or later gold-mining will be established as an important industry in Southern India.'

A portion of the Wainád has recently been made over to the Nílgiris District, and what remains to Malabar is under the control of a Deputy Collector, whose headquarters are at MANANTODDI.

Waingangá.—River of the Central Provinces, rising in Seoní District, a few miles east of the Nágpur and Jabalpur road, near the Kuraí Ghát. At first, it flows in a north-westerly direction; then turning north, it skirts the west of Seoní District; and not far to the west of Chhapára, where it is crossed by a fine bridge with 12 arches of 50 feet span, it turns again and flows east till the confluence of the Thánwar. At this point it changes its course to the south, and after passing through a mountain gorge, enters the open country known as the valley of the Waingangá. For about 60 miles, it flows nearly due south, parting Seoní and Bálághát Districts. It then receives the Bágh, and rolls on in a south-westerly direction through Bhandára. After passing Bhandára town, it is joined by its main tributary, the Kanhán; then turning towards the south-east, it traverses Chánda, until at a point about 30 miles south-east of Chánda town it unites with the Wardhá, in lat. 19° 36′ 10″ N., and long. 79° 50′ E., to form the Pranhítá river, which ultimately falls into the Godávari. At the confluence of the Wardhá and Waingangá occurs the mass of rock known as the Third Barrier of the Godávari. The Waingangá is navigable during the rains for about a hundred miles above its junction with the Kanhán. Its greatest breadth is 300 yards, and its total length to its union with the Wardhá about 350 miles. Its chief affluents, besides those above mentioned, are the Báwantharí, Chulban, Gárhví, Khobrágarhi, Kámen, Potpuri, Kurúr, Botwári, and Andhári.

Wairágarh.—*Parganá* in the north-east corner of Chánda District, Central Provinces; comprising 116 *khálsa* villages and 16 chiefships. Area, 1960 square miles. The Gárhví river joins the Wainganga at the north-west corner of this *parganá*, and the Khobrágarhi intersects it from east to west. The country is very hilly, especially towards the east, and mostly covered with dense forest. The soil is generally sandy or red. Chief product, rice. The most important towns are ARMORI and WAIRAGARH.

Wairágarh.—Town in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 25′ N., and long. 80° 7′ E., 80 miles north-east of Chánda town, at the confluence of the Khobrágarhi and Tepágarhi. Tradition ascribes the foundation of the town to a king of the family of the Moon, in the *Dwapar Yug*, who called it Wairágarh after his own name, Wairochan. Nearer historic times, it was ruled by Máná chiefs, who about the 9th century gave way to the Gonds; and a line of Gond princes held the *parganás* of Garhbori, Rájgarh, and Wairágarh, in subordination to the Chánda kings. Noble groves of ancient trees surround the town; and in the centre tower the walls and bastions of the large stone fort, built about 1600, which contains the tomb of the Gond prince Durga Sháh. In the forest around, many traces of ancient buildings remain, and near the town stand several old temples, the most interesting being those sacred to Mahákáli and Mahádeva. Near the former, in a deep reach of the Khobrágarhi, an old-world temple is said to be buried in the sands. Wairágarh is very unhealthy during the autumn and early winter; and most of its trade has passed to ARMORI. Good sandstone and granite are obtained near the town; but the diamond and ruby mines are no longer worked. The town has Government schools for boys and girls, a District post office, police office, and customs offices.

Wajiria.—One of the petty States in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Its area is 10 square miles. The chief is named Thákur Kalubawa. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £2670; and tribute is paid of £500 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Wa-kha-may.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-loung township of Thún-khwa District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877-78), 5982; gross revenue, £5349.

Wa-kha-rú.—Township in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; bounded on the east by the Toung-gnyo Hills, and on the west by the Bay of Bengal; extreme length, 28 miles. Consists of an upland tract, broken at places by small rice plains and by lofty granite hills; intersected by numerous tidal creeks, most of which debouch into the open sea, and are therefore useless for native craft during the rainy season.

Wa-khay-ma.—Village in the Shwe-loung township of Thún-khwa

District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Consists of two portions, of which that lying on the northern bank of the Wa-khay-ma river is called Taw-ta-no. Total pop. (1878), 1992. Considerable trade in rice.

Waktapur.—One of the petty States in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Its area is 1 square mile. There are three chiefs, who bear the title of Ráwal. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £50; and tribute is paid of £15 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Wala.—Native State in the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, Bombay, lying between 21° 51′ and 21° 57′ N. lat., and between 71° 49′ and 72° 3′ E. long. Area, 88 square miles; pop. (1872), 17,086; number of villages, 40. The soil is black and also light; and irrigation is practised to some extent. The climate is hot and dry. The usual grains, sugar-cane, and cotton are grown. The territory lies inland, and the road from Gogo to Ahmedábád passes through it, the nearest ports being Bháunagar and Dholera. The chief town stands on the site of the ancient Vallabhi, the seat of a dynasty of Gupta kings. Copper-plates, coins, rings, and other relics of this dynasty are frequently found. Wala ranks as a third-class State in Káthiáwár; its ruler entered into the usual engagements in 1807. The present (1876-77) chief is Thakúr Wakhatsinhjí Megrájjí, a Hindu of the Gohel clan of Rájputs. He is thirteen years of age, and is under tuition at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot. He enjoys an estimated revenue of £13,300; and pays a tribute of £878 jointly to the Gáekwár of Baroda and the Nawáb of Junágarh, and maintains a military force of 95 men. The family follow the rule of primogeniture in point of succession. During the minority of the present chief, the State is administered by a native minister under the supervision of the Assistant Political Agent. There are 9 schools, with a total of 1000 pupils.

Wala.—Capital of the State of the same name, Káthiáwár; situated in lat. 21° 52′ 30″ N., and long. 71° 57′ 30″ E.

Wálájábád (*Válájábadu*, named after the Princes of Arcot; also called *Shímaram*).—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras. Lat. 12° 47′ 25″ N., long. 79° 51′ 51″ E.; pop. (1871), 4675, inhabiting 860 houses. Formerly a military station.

Wálájápet (also called after the Arcot family name).—Municipal town in North Arcot District, Madras, and a station on the Madras Railway; situated in lat. 12° 55′ 35″ N., and long. 79° 24′ 20″ E., 3 miles from Arcot town, on the left bank of the river Pálár. Pop. (1871), 12,034, inhabiting 2935 houses; municipal revenue in 1875, £971; incidence of taxation, 1s. 7¼d. per head. A neat, well-built trading town, with broad airy streets and tiled houses. The municipality is admirably worked without European assistance.

Wálam.—Town in the Pátan Subdivision of the State of Baroda, Guzerat. Pop. (1872), 5125.

Walsad.—Port and municipal town in Surat District, Bombay—*See* BULSAR.

Waltair (*Válteru*).—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras, in lat. 17° 44′ N., and long. 83° 22′ 36″ E.; pop. (1871), 1483, inhabiting 476 houses. The European suburb of VIZAGAPATAM, situated 3 miles north of that town. Although only 230 feet above sea level, it is remarkable for its healthy climate; and all the European officers, civil and military, live here. The garrison consists of 1 Native infantry regiment.

Walusna.—One of the petty States in Mahi Kántha, Bombay. The amount of land under cultivation was estimated in 1875 at 7600 *bighás*. The chief is Thakúr Virum Deo, a Ráhtor Rájput. The population was returned in 1875 at 3880, and the revenue at £450; tribute is paid of £28 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Wán (or *Ban*).—River of Berar, whose source is in the Sátpura range, running in an almost direct course through Akola District to the Púrna, which it joins in lat. 20° 55′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 47′ E. This river differs from sister streams, whose beds in the region of the deep black soil are sandy and usually fringed with black mud, whereas the Wán has a stony channel laid on a deep loam deposit. Wading is dangerous, the round and oval smooth stones affording very insecure footing, even when the stream is little more than knee-deep. The Wán varies in width from ⅛ to ½ mile between old banks, which become more prominent as the Púrna is approached; these old banks of *muram* and trap furnish excellent village sites, dry, hard, and healthy. The alluvial deposit between the stream itself and its old banks is used as garden ground, and is irrigated from wells. The course of this river can be traced as a continuous green line marked by the tops of trees growing along the water edge of the true banks, not visible till near at hand, in strange contrast to the brown line of the rugged old banks above.

Wanala.—One of the petty States in Jháláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £257; and tribute is paid of £39 to the British Government.

Wanbhachran (*Ván Bachrán*).—Town in Bannu District, Punjab; situated on the road from Isa Khel to Sháhpur. Pop. (1868), 6178, consisting of 363 Hindus, 5813 Muhammadans, and 2 Síkhs.

Wandiwash (*Vandivásu*).—Chief town of a *táluk* of the same name in North Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 12° 30′ 20″ N., long. 79° 38′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 4425, inhabiting 656 houses. Wandiwash is historically interesting as the scene of several important operations in the War of the Karnatic. The fort belonged to a member of the family of the Nawáb of Arcot. In 1752, it was attacked by

Major Lawrence; in 1757, Colonel Aldercom destroyed the town, but failed to capture the fort. The French garrison twice in that year repulsed the English. A more energetic attack under Monson in 1759 was also unsuccessful. Immediately after this, the French soldiers mutinied, and although they were speedily pacified, before the end of the year the fort surrendered to Coote. In 1760, Lally appeared before the fort; in a day or two, he was joined by Bussy and 3000 Marhattá auxiliaries. Before the siege had far progressed, Coote came up, and in the pitched battle which ensued, the French were utterly routed, and Bussy was taken prisoner. This victory was in itself and in its consequences the most important ever won over the French in India. In 1780, Lieutenant Flint by a bold stratagem saved the fort from falling into the hands of Haidar Alí, and with very inadequate means held it for nearly three years against every device of the enemy. Twice he was relieved by Sir Eyre Coote, and twice at least he repelled most vigorous assaults.

Wandren.—Town in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay.—*See* BANDORA.

Wangadra.—One of the petty States in Gohelwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £200; and tribute is paid of £7 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £2 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Wánkáner.—Native State in Káthiáwár, Bombay. Area, 376 square miles; pop. (1872), 28,750; number of villages, 76. The soil is chiefly light, and the territory is hilly; irrigation is practised to some extent. The climate is hot, but healthy; the prevailing disease is fever. A kind of black marble is found within the limits of the State. The principal articles of production are grain, sugar-cane, and cotton; the chief manufacture, salt. The nearest port is Joria. Wákáner ranks as a second-class State in Káthiáwár; its ruler entered into the usual engagements in 1807. He has power to try for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent, his own subjects only. The family follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession. The present (1876-77) chief is Rájásáhib Banesinhji, a Hindu of the Jhála clan of Rájputs. He is thirty-five years old, and administers the affairs of his State in person. He enjoys an estimated revenue of £12,500; and pays a tribute of £1880 jointly to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh. There are 5 schools, with a total of 167 pupils.

Wánkáner.—Town in Káthiáwár, Bombay, capital of the State of the same name; situated in lat. 22° 36′ 10″ N., and long. 71° 2′ 50″ E. Pop. (1872), 5552.

Wannah.—One of the petty States in Jháláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 3 villages, with 6 independent tribute-payers. The

revenue was estimated in 1876 at £2231 ; and tribute is paid of £371 to the British Government, and £27 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Wanode.—One of the petty States in Jháláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 12 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £1210; and tribute is paid of £195 to the British Government.

Wánsdá.—State in Guzerat, Bombay.—*See* BANSDA.

Wanthli (*Banthly*, *Vanathali*).—Town in the Sorath Subdivision of Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 21° 28′ 30″ N., long. 70° 22′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 6056.

Wáo.—Native State in the Political Superintendency of Pálanpur, Bombay. It extends from north to south about 35 miles, and from east to west 15 miles. It is bounded on the north by Sáchor in Málwá, on the east and south by the Tharád and Singám States, and on the west by the salt desert of the Rann. It possesses an area of 360 square miles; pop. (1872), 23,081. The country is a flat sandy plain, with the exception of its western boundary, where the soil changes to a hard clay. The chief products are millets and pulse; water is plentifully obtained from 9 feet to 40 feet below the surface, but it is generally brackish. Irrigation is nowhere practised. The prevailing disease is fever. The climate is very hot from April to July, and also in October and November. The ruling family originally came from Sembhor and Nándol in Márwár, and claims kindred with the Chauhán King of Delhi, Prithwi Ráj. After various vicissitudes of fortune, Dedh Ráo was driven out of Nándol, and obtained possession of Tharád, then subordinate to the Rájput dynasty reigning at Pátan. Ráná Punja, the seventh in descent from Dedh Ráo, was killed in battle, and the territory recovered from the Chauháns. Ráná Waza, the son of Punja, built the town of Wáo. The present (1876-77) chief is Ráná Umed Sinh, a Hindu of the Chauhán clan of Rájputs, eighteenth in descent from Ráná Punja. He is twenty-nine years of age, and manages his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated revenue of £3000; and maintains a military force of 50 men. The family follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession. There is 1 school, with a total of 60 pupils.

Wao.—Town in Guzerat, Bombay, and capital of the State of the same name; situated in lat. 24° 21′ 30″ N., and long. 71° 30′ E.

Waori Dharwála.—One of the petty States in Gohelwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 4 villages, with 5 independent tribute-payers. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £1005; and tribute is paid of £129 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £23 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Waori Wachání.—One of the petty States in Gohelwár, Bombay. It consists of 3 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue

was estimated in 1876 at £300; and tribute is paid of £29 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £5 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Wáráhi.—Native State in the Political Superintendency of Pálanpur, Bombay. It is bounded on the north by the Chadchat State, south by the salt desert of the Rann, east by the Rádhanpur State, and west by Chorwár. Area, 204 square miles; pop. (1872), 20,096. The territory of Wáráhi is flat and open, like Rádhanpur. The soil is sandy, black, and (towards the Rann) impregnated with salt. The first two kinds of soil produce one crop yearly of common grains; while a large quantity of excellent wheat, as in Rádhanpur, is grown during the rainy season. A good deal of cotton is also cultivated. *Ghasia*, or self-produced salt, is found in large quantities. From April to May, and also in October and November, the heat is excessive. The common form of sickness is fever. Malek Isa, the founder of the family, came originally from Sind, about 420 years ago. According to the statement of the ruling family, they were compelled to quit Sind on account of the tyranny of its rulers. They gained possession of the Wáráhi Sub-division by driving out the Roma Musalmáns. The present (1876-77) chief is Umar Khán Malek, a Ját Muhammadan. He is twenty-nine years of age. He enjoys an estimated revenue of £4000. There is 1 school, with 42 pupils.

Wáráhi.—Town in Guzerat, Bombay, capital of the Native State of the same name; situated in lat. 23° 47′ 20″ N., and long. 71° 29′ 20″ E.

Warangal.—Ancient town in the Nizám's Dominions, or State of Haidarábád; 86 miles north-east of Haidarábád city. Lat. 17° 58′ N., long. 79° 40′ E. Warangal was the ancient capital of the Hindu kingdom of Telingána, founded by the Narapati Andhras. Nothing of accurate historical record is known concerning this kingdom till 1303, when a Muhammadan invasion under Alá-ud-dín occurred. It failed to effect any conquest, the army being compelled to retreat after severe suffering. In 1309, another expedition under Málik Káfur succeeded in capturing Warangal fort after a long siege, and in compelling the Rájá to pay tribute. Fresh invasions occurred in the reign of Ghiyás-ud-dín Tughlak, when Warangal was again captured by the Muhammadans, but recovered by the Hindus in the reign of his successor, Muhammad Tughlak. The rising Muhammadan power of the Bahmanís in the Deccan soon came into collision with the Hindu State. In 1538, war ensued on a demand by the Warangal Rájá for the restitution of conquests; and this ultimately resulted in the further loss of Golconda, together with much booty, and of his son, who was taken prisoner and put to death by the Bahmani king. Between 1512 and 1543, the remains of the Hindu kingdom were incorporated in the dominions acquired by Kuli Kutab Sháh, the founder of the

Kutab Sháhí dynasty, with its capital at Golconda. Golconda in its turn fell before the Mughal armies of Aurangzeb in 1688.

Warangam.—One of the petty States in Mahi Kántha, Bombay. The land under cultivation was estimated in 1875 at 25,150 *bighás*. The chief is Thakúr Ráj Sinh, a Rehwár Rájput. The population was returned in 1875 at 3259, and the revenue at £1005.

Warangáon.—Municipal town in Khándesh District, Bombay; situated in lat. 20° 57′ N., and long. 75° 55′ 30″ E., 8 miles east of Bhusáwal. Pop. (1872), 4337; municipal income, £122. Warangáon was handed over to the British Government by Sindhia in 1861. It had previously passed through the hands of the Mughals, the Nizám, and the Peshwá. Post office.

Wárásinor.—Tributary State in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. — *See* BALASINOR.

Warbah (or *Bhawal*).—Petty State in the Khásí Hills, Assam. Pop. (1872), 369; revenue, £1601, chiefly from royalties on lime-quarries. The presiding chief, whose title is *siem*, is named Baman Sinh. The principal products are rice, *tezpát* or bay-leaves, black pepper, and lime.

Wardhá.—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 20° 18′ and 21° 21′ N. lat., and between 78° 4′ 30″ and 79° 15′ E. long. It forms a triangle with its apex towards the north-west; the base rests on Chándá District; the eastern side is bounded by Nágpur, while on the western side the river Wardhá separates it from Berar. Population in 1872, 354,720 souls; area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1879, 2401 square miles. The administrative headquarters are at WARDHA TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The north of the District consists of a hilly region, formed by the spurs projecting from the great Sátpura chain. The hill ranges run generally in a south-easterly direction. For the most part they are rugged and stony. In summer-time, a few shrubs or small trees appear on their sides; and after the rains, they are covered with luxuriant grass, affording pasture to large herds of buffaloes and cattle. In the Ashtí and Kondhálí *parganás*, however, many of the hills are clothed with young teak and other timber, and the valleys between are rich and fertile. In the north, a succession of *gháts*—abrupt escarpments in the trap rock—mark the steps by which the country rises and falls from the bed of the Wardhá to the confines of Nágpur. The best known are the *gháts* of Talegáon, Chicholí, Dhámkúnd, and Thánegáon. The central cluster of hills, including the various peaks of Málegáon (1726 feet above sea level), Nándgáon (1874 feet), and Garumsúr (2086 feet, the highest point in Wardhá), forms the watershed of the District. From the north and west of this range numerous small streams make their way towards the river Wardhá, while

from the south and south-east the Dhám, the Bor, and the Asodá *nálá* flow down the length of the District in a south-easterly direction. But except the Wardhá, with its affluents the Waná and Baklí, the District does not contain any river of importance. To the south, the country spreads out in an undulating plain, intersected by water-courses, and broken here and there by isolated hills rising abruptly from the surface. In general, the lowlands are well wooded, the commonest trees being the mango, tamarind, *ním*, *ber*, and *pípal*, with clumps of date-palms peeping out from the hollows. In the *tahsíl* of Hinganghát, however, the country is singularly bare, except towards the east, where a tract of jungle extends.

The great sheet of trap which covers the Berars, and spreads as far as the coast of the Arabian Sea, underlies the whole of the District. The stratification is regular and continuous, and the angle of inclination generally small; and thus may be explained the flat tops of the hills, and the horizontal terraces which their sides present. The usual succession is black soil resting on nodular trap, between which and the underlying trap a fresh-water formation intervenes. The black soil varies in depth from 10 feet to a few inches, the average thickness being about 2 feet. It is generally found intermixed with nodular limestone, the exposed fragments of which are collected and burnt for building purposes. The fresh-water stratum may be traced on the plain of Hinganghát, which also exposes abundance of silicified wood. At Girar, also, the hillside shows the fresh-water stratum in all its varieties, while the plain is strewn with curious zeolitic concretions, resembling nutmegs, which have issued from the soft rock beneath. Six centuries ago, the Musalmán saint Shaikh Khwájá Faríd dwelt on the top of the hill; and the story runs that these concretions are the petrified cocoa-nuts of two travelling traders who mocked the holy man, on which he turned their whole stock-in-trade into stones. A colony of *fakírs* still reside on the summit. Owing to the sameness of the geological formation, Wardhá has not any variety of mineral products. No ores are found, nor does this District seem destined, like Chándá, to be important for its coal-fields. The black basalt supplies good building-stone, and in a few places quarries of flagstone have been opened. Of wild animals, the tiger, leopard, hyæna, wolf, jackal, and wild hog abound; the spotted deer, *nílgái*, and wild goat also inhabit the hills, while antelopes may be seen all over the plains. Bustards, partridges, quails, and rock-pigeons are numerous. Fish, on the other hand, are scarce. Snakes of all kinds, and large scorpions and centipedes, are common.

History.—According to tradition, the north-west portion of the District formed part of the dominions of Bhímak, King of the Vidarbha country, whose daughter married the god Krishna. The south-eastern portion

of the District was then inhabited by Gaulís, and belonged to a Pawan Rájá, a Kshattriya of the race of the Sun, who reigned over Paunár, Panní, and Pohuá. He possessed the philosopher's stone, so that instead of rent, his cultivators gave him the iron of their ploughs, which forthwith was changed into gold. As he kept no army, a feeling arose among the people of insecurity against foreign invasion. The Rájá pointed out to them that he had only to take a bundle of reeds and cut them into small pieces, and any enemy's army would be at once destroyed. His unbelieving subjects, to test his power, matched two bands in a fight in which blood was drawn. This, they informed the Rájá, was the work of an enemy's army. The Rájá asked them three times if they spoke the truth; and then, being a man of his word 'and of one wife,' he cut some reeds, and assured the deputation that the enemy were destroyed. On returning, they found that the bands which had fought had all lost their heads. On this the widows and orphans supplicated the Rájá, who graciously restored the dead men to life. At length, Sayyid Sháh Kabír, a yet greater enchanter, drew near; and, learning that the Rájá could decapitate his foes from a distance, he took the precaution of removing his own head before approaching Paunár. The Rájá perceived that his rule was over, and sank with his wife into the deep waters of the Dhám, beneath Paunár fort. Since then the pool has formed the scene of various marvels. A herdsman, who grazed his cattle on the river bank, found that for twelve years a strange black cow fed among his herds. As he received no pay for looking after her, he at last asked her whose she was. The cow, thus interrogated, stepped into the pool; but the herdsman seized her tail and disappeared with her beneath the water. There he found a temple, from which came a stranger, who began to tether the cow. The herdsman demanded his hire, and was given some vegetable bulbs. These he rejected angrily, and seizing the cow's tail, rose with it to the surface. The next day he discovered to his vexation that the small fragment of the vegetable which he had retained had become pure gold. This pool was also one of those sacred waters which, on receiving an offering of rice, supply dishes for the villagers' entertainments. Once, however, a sordid man omitted to return all the dishes; and since that day the pool has furnished no more.

Beyond these legends, Wardhá has no independent history. It was only separated in 1862 for administrative purposes from Nágpur District. Its history, therefore, will be found in the article NAGPUR. It may, however, be remarked that in the early years of the present century, Wardhá suffered greatly from the marauding Pindhárís, who swept down on these rich plains from their camps in the Narbadá valley. From these times date the mud forts, found in nearly every village, which form a prominent object in most Wardhá landscapes.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Wardhá District at 343,485 persons. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 354,720. The latest estimate in 1877 indicates a total of 372,815. The Census of 1872 still remains, however, the only basis for a detailed examination of the people. It disclosed a population of 354,720 persons, on an area of 2379, or according to the latest and most accurate return of 1877, 2401 square miles, residing in 893 villages or townships and 75,145 houses. Persons per square mile, 149; villages per square mile, 0·38; houses per square mile, 31·59; persons per village, 397·22; persons per house, 4·72. Classified according to sex—males, 180,899; females, 173,821. According to age, the male children in 1877 numbered 66,775; the female children, 64,146. The entire population was thus classified in 1877—Europeans, 22; Eurasians, 33; aboriginal tribes, 37,745; Hindus, 319,408; Muhammadans, 13,062; Buddhists and Jains, 2501; Native Christians, 44. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds (35,164 in 1872), the remainder consisting of Marias, Khonds, etc. Among the Hindus, Bráhmans in 1872 numbered 7623; the mass of the Hindu population consists of Kunbis, 77,788; Dhers or Mhars, 47,544; Telis, 33,017; and other cultivating or inferior castes, 143,392. The language commonly spoken is Marathí.

Division into Town and Country.—There are only 3 towns in Wardhá District with a population exceeding 5000, viz.—HINGANGHAT, 9415; ARVI, 7639; and DEOLI, 5558. Townships of from 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, 59; from 200 to 1000, 425; villages of less than 200 inhabitants, 406. But although Wardhá contains no great city, the average size of the townships is greater than in any other District of the Central Provinces. Yet in Wardhá, as in the other Districts, the tendency is for the population to become less and less urban; and between 1866 and 1872, the population of every one of its towns decreased in numbers, excepting only the great cotton mart of HINGANGHAT. Owing to the scarcity of timber, the houses are generally small and meanly built. The only municipalities are WARDHA (the District capital), ARVI, DEOLI, and HINGANGHAT. Wardhá town has a population within municipal limits of 2734; municipal income in 1876-77, £825, of which £305 was derived from taxation, being 1s. 7½d. per head. Arví, with a population of 7143, had in the same year a municipal income of £619, of which £542 was derived from taxation. Deolí—pop. 597; municipal income, £589 (£542 derived from taxation). Hinganghát—pop. 9992; municipal income, £1593 (£1468 derived from taxation).

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 2401 square miles, 1412 are cultivated, while of the portion lying waste, 443 are returned as cultivable; 4859 acres are irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. The Govern-

ment assessment is at the rate of 1s. 3d. per acre of the cultivated land, or 3s. 6½d. on cultivable land. The most important crop of the District is cotton, which in 1876 covered an area of 222,421 acres. Wheat occupied 192,636 acres; other food grains, 345,560; and oil-seeds, 154,228. Only 2035 acres were devoted to rice, and on 1403 tobacco was produced. The average prices of produce per cwt. were as follows:—Cotton, £4, 15s. 5d.; wheat, 6s. 3d.; linseed, 8s. 2d.; rice, 7s. 8d. The breeding of cattle is carried on to a considerable extent on the rich pastures in the highlands to the north; but in summer, most of the herds are driven to the jungles of Mandla or Chándá. The District is especially famous for its trotting bullocks, and also contains a fine breed of buffaloes. The sheep and goats, though numerous, are reckoned of inferior quality. In the north of the District, a little lac is gathered, and the Gonds collect gum, besides wax and honey; but the only valuable article of forest produce consists of the flowers from the *mahuá* trees, which abound in Wardhá. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 3603 proprietors, of whom 1832 were classed as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered 26,667, of whom 7479 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 19,188 were tenants-at-will. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land are returned as follows:—Land suited for cotton, 2s. 5d.; for wheat, 2s. 2d.; for inferior grain, 1s. 7½d.; for oil-seeds, 2s. 3d.; for tobacco, 8s. 6d. Skilled labourers in 1877 received 1s. per diem; unskilled labourers, 4½d.

Commerce and Trade.—Country cloth forms the only local manufacture of importance, but cotton thread, blankets, gunny, and rope are also made. The greater part of the cloth woven in the District is exported to Berar and farther west. Since the completion of the railway to Bombay, a considerable trade has also sprung up in butter, either fresh or clarified, which is largely produced round Arví, and finds a sale in the Bombay market. But by far the most important article exported from Wardhá is the raw cotton known as 'Hingangháts,' from the cotton mart of that name. The commercial celebrity of this brand has drawn to Hinganghát, for foreign export, quantities of cotton produced in Eastern Berar, Nágpur, Chándá, and elsewhere; but deducting these, the produce of Wardhá alone averaged in 1870 about 25,000 bales of 400 lbs. each. The principal imports consist of salt, English piece-goods, hardware, and spices. Wardhá contains 74 miles of roads of the second class, and 65 miles of railway. It possesses no means of communication by water. The black soil renders the task of making and maintaining the roads both difficult and expensive. Of the principal lines, the southern road between Nágpur and Haidarábád enters the District a little to the east of Sindí, and after traversing its south-eastern corner, passes into Chándá

District at a point due south of Hinganghát. A branch road connects Hinganghát with the village of Tám, and acts as a feeder to the southern road, which otherwise would be of imperial rather than local importance. The internal traffic chiefly takes the line of the Wardhá valley road, which unites the railway station of Pulgáon with the towns of Deolí and Hinganghát in the south, and Arví and Ashtí in the north, and traverses the whole length of the valley of the Wardhá. Of country tracks, the most important is the old road between Bombay and Nágpur. Throughout the District, the usual conveyances for persons or goods consist of various forms of light carts, drawn by the trotting bullocks for which Wardhá is famous. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway crosses the centre of the District, with stations at Pulgáon, Wardhá, and Sindí.

Administration.—On the 1st August 1862, Wardhá was formed into a separate District of the Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1876-77, £76,491, of which the land yielded £51,109. Total cost of District officials and police, £12,268. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts, 9; magistrates, 10; maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 26 miles; average distance, 19 miles. Number of police, 442, costing £6087, being 1 policeman to every 5·5 square miles and to every 815 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 54, of whom 4 were females. The total cost of the jails was £601. The number of Government or aided schools under Government inspection in 1876 was 64, attended by 3689 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Wardhá bears an ill repute for rapid and violent variations in temperature. At the civil station the average temperature in the shade during 1876 was thus recorded:—May, highest reading 110° F., lowest 105°; July, highest 92°, lowest 74°; December, highest 81°, lowest 73°. During the summer months a dry, hot wind blows steadily from the north-west. The rains generally open with a hurricane about the middle of June, and last till the end of September. In 1876, the total rainfall recorded was 32·10 inches; the average fall slightly exceeds 36 inches. The prevailing disease of the District is fever, especially in the months succeeding the rains. Cholera occasionally occurs; but since sanitary restrictions have been placed on the religious fairs at Jagannáth, Pachmarhí, and Pandharpur, epidemics have been less frequently imported into the District. In 1876, the death-rate was returned at 23·06 per thousand. During the same year 5 charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 14,187 in-door and out-door patients.

Wardhá.—Central *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Wardhá District, Central

Provinces. Pop. (1872), 145,190, residing in 316 villages or townships and 32,467 houses; area, 795 square miles.

Wardhá.—Chief town of Wardhá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 45′ N., long. 78° 40′ E. Built since May 1866, in wide and regular streets, on the site of the old village of Pálakwárí. Estimated pop. (1877), 2734. The jail, police lines, public garden, court-houses, etc., occupy a gentle slope, east of the native town. The drainage is good; and several miles of avenues of trees have been laid out around the town. Cotton presses and a metalled storage and weighing yard have been provided from the local funds, which are chiefly derived from a tax on all shops opened at the *bázár* held every Friday. Wardhá has a vernacular town-school; and is a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway.

Wardhá.—River rising in the Sátpura Hills between Nágpur and Betúl in the Central Provinces. It flows south-east, parting Nágpur, Wardhá, and Chándá Districts of the Central Provinces from Berar and the Nizám's Dominions. It receives the Paingangá, its chief affluent, in lat. 20° 6′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 10′ E., on the right bank, about 190 miles from its source; and a little above Chándá, after a course of 254 miles, it unites with the Waingangá, forming the Pranhítá river, which ultimately falls into the Godávari. The bed of the Wardhá is rocky and deep, and in the monsoon the river becomes a furious torrent. In the hot months it is nearly everywhere fordable. The most noted rapid is near Soit, a village in Chándá, where in the cold season the river is 80 yards wide and of great depth. Suddenly it plunges through a rift of rock, and, narrowing to a few feet, foams down a steep incline, and then falls into a broad, quiet pool beneath. This rapid is best seen about the middle of October. At Pulgáon, in Wardhá District, the Great Indian Peninsula Railway crosses the river on an iron bridge, constructed of fourteen sixty-foot girders, resting on masonry piers. The valley of the Wardhá, famous for its cotton, is a rich tract lying between the river and a range of hills, which recede as Wardhá District is entered. In Chándá District, coal has been discovered at several points, notably at Warorá. Throughout the river's course, its banks are crowned by many old temples and tombs. A large fair takes place every November at Dewelwǎrá, lasting about three weeks.

Wári.—The chief town of SAWANTWARI, a Native State in the Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 15° 54′ 25″ N., and long. 73° 51′ 33″ E. The town is also known by the names of Sáwantwári and Sundarwári.

Warnolimoti.—One of the petty States in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, ¾ square mile. The chief is named Ráhtor Pithibhai. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £30; and tribute is paid of £10 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Warnolmal.—One of the petty States in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 2 square miles. There are two chiefs. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £120; and tribute is paid of £8 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Warode.—One of the petty States in Jháláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 3 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £2100; and tribute is paid of £125 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £27 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Warode.—One of the petty States in Gohelwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £220; and tribute is paid of £94 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £16 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Warorá.—The north-western *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Chánda District, Central Provinces, lying between 19° 58′ and 20° 43′ N. lat., and between 78° 52′ and 79° 40′ E. long. Pop. (1872), 113,326, residing in 410 villages or townships and 24,516 houses; area, 1281 square miles.

Warorá.—*Parganá* in the north-west of Chánda District, Central Provinces, comprising 148 villages. Area, 415 square miles. The river Sír traverses a large portion of this *parganá* from north to south, and the Viraí flows along the north-eastern corner. The country generally is a rolling plain of black loam, dotted here and there with sandstone hills. Chief products—cotton, wheat, *joár*, oil-seeds, gram, and rice. The population is mainly Marhattá. The principal towns are WARORA, MANDHERI, and SEGAON.

Warorá.—The second commercial town in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 14′ N., and long. 79° 2′ E., 32 miles north-west of Chánda town. At the weekly market, a good trade in cotton, grain, groceries, country cloth, and salt is carried on. The town has a *tahsíl*, town school for boys, girls' school, post office, police station-house, *sarái* (native inn), travellers' bungalow, large tank, camping ground, nursery for young trees, and Public Works bungalow. An Assistant Patrol of Customs is stationed at Warorá. The colliery near the town supplies the best coal hitherto found in the Central Provinces. During the year 1876-77, the out-turn amounted to 10,700 tons; but lately, larger quantities have been raised, and 3000 tons a month have been supplied to the Railway Company.

Warsuora (*Wursora*).—One of the petty States in Mahi Kántha, Bombay. The amount of land under cultivation was estimated in 1875 at 9300 *bighás.* The chief is Thakúr Kisuri Sinh, a Chaora Rájput. Pop. returned in 1875 at 3881; revenue, £1050. Tribute is paid of £158 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Wartal.—Town in Kaira District, Bombay, the headquarters of the Swámínáráyan sect of Hindus, and the residence of their high

priest or Mahárájá. A large sum of money has been expended of late on the buildings, the lecture hall being specially fine. Wartal is a place of pilgrimage.

Wasa.—Town in the Pitlád Subdivision of the Baroda State; situated within the limits of the British District of Kaira, Bombay. Lat. 22° 40′ N., long. 72° 48′ E.; pop. (1872), 6688.

Wasan Sewada.—One of the petty States in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 3¼ square miles. The chief is named Ráhtor Kalubawa. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £500; and tribute is paid of £115 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Wasan Virpur.—One of the petty States in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 7½ square miles. The chief is named Daima Jitabawa. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £800; and tribute is paid of £43 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Washermanpetta.—Suburb of MADRAS CITY.

Wassawád.—One of the petty States in South Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 4 villages, with 8 independent tribute-payers. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £2000; and tribute is paid of £76 to the British Government.

Wassurad.—One of the petty Bhíl States in Khándesh, Bombay. —*See* DANG STATES.

Watrap (*Vattirairuppu*).—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras; situated in lat. 9° 38′ N., and long. 77° 41′ E., in a fertile valley on the Madura boundary. Pop. (1871), 14,892, inhabiting 3939 houses. Considerable iron-smelting industry.

Wauri Wachani.—Petty State in Gohelwár, Bombay.—*See* WAORI WACHANI.

Wawánya.—Port in Morvi State, Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 23° N., long. 70° 43′ E.

Wazírábád.—Northern *tahsíl* of Gujránwála District, Punjab; consisting for the most part of a comparatively fertile tract, stretching inward from the bank of the river Chenáb. Area, 448 square miles; pop. (1868), 151,041; number of villages, 253.

Wazírábád.—Municipal town in Gujránwála District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; situated on the Grand Trunk Road and Northern State Railway, 22 miles north of Gujránwála town, in lat. 32° 27′ N., and long. 74° 10′ E. Population (1868), 15,730, consisting of 4033 Hindus, 10,612 Muhammadans, 841 Síkhs, 14 Christians, and 230 'others.' The town lies in the low country north of the high bank which bounds the narrower valley of the Chenáb, about 3 miles from the present bed of the river. The Phalku rivulet flows north of the town. Wazírábád has only recently risen to importance. It is first heard of in connection with Gurbaksh Sinh, a retainer of Charrat Sinh, from whom it passed into the hands of

the Mahárájá Ranjít Sinh. Under his rule, it became the headquarters of General Avitabile, who built a completely new town, in the shape of a parallelogram, and surrounded it with an irregular brick wall. A broad and straight *bázár* runs from end to end, crossed at right angles by minor streets, also of considerable width, forming a great contrast to the tortuous *culs-de-sac* so common in towns of purely native construction. The houses are chiefly built of sun-dried or kiln-burnt bricks.

Under British rule, Wazírábád became for a time the headquarters of a District, including the whole of Gujránwála and Siálkot, together with portions of Lahore and Gurdáspur. Since the opening of the works in connection with the Northern State Railway, the town, situated at one extremity of an important section, and standing in the immediate neighbourhood of the bridge to be constructed across the Chenáb — one of the most arduous engineering tasks of the whole undertaking—has become the site of a numerous European colony. Nevertheless, the population is on the decrease. A cantonment formerly existed 6 miles west of the town, but it has been abandoned, and is now overgrown. Important religious fair at Dhonkal, close to the town, at which much business is transacted. Extensive boat-building works; timber is floated down the Chenáb to Múltán. Manufacture of small articles in steel and iron. *Tahsíl*, *thána*, staging bungalow, *sarái*, post office, dispensary, Government school. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1405, or 11¾d. per head of population (18,368) within municipal limits.

Wazíri Lag.—Tract of country in Kángra District, Punjab; one of the three minor Subdivisions of KULLU PROPER, including the whole region of Kullu west of the Beas (Biás), traversed by the Sarvari river. Area, 178 square miles.

Wazíri Parol.—Tract of country in Kángra District, Punjab; the second of the three minor Subdivisions of Kullu. Includes the upper valley of the Beas (Biás) down to the junction of the Phijrám river, on the right bank, and the Párbatí, on the left; together with the right side of the Párbatí valley from its junction with the Beas to its confluence with the Malána. Area, 496 square miles.

Wazíri Rúpi.—Tract of country in Kángra District, Punjab; the third of the three minor Subdivisions of Kullu. Includes the country east of the Beas (Biás) between the rivers Párbatí and Sainj. Area, 677 square miles.

We-la-toung.—Village in the Naaf township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma, lying on the bank of the Myo-thit stream. Total pop. (1878), 2721.

Wellington (or *Jakatála*).—Hill station and military cantonment in the Nílgiri District, Madras; situated in lat. 11° 22′ N., and long.

76° 50′ E. Jakatála Hill, about 1½ mile from Kunúr (Coonoor) and 9 miles from Ootacamund, is 6100 feet above sea level. Pop. (1871), 1707, inhabiting 348 houses. The principal military sanatorium of the Madras Presidency, with a handsome range of barracks, built in 1857. Climate and vegetation same as at Kunúr.

Weng-ba-daw.—Creek in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim, British Burma, which joins the Tsit-toung river at Weng-ba-daw village. Communicates during the rains with the numerous streams in the large plains south of Tsit-toung and Kyaik-hto; and at this season the Weng-ba-daw forms a portion of the main route for country boats to Maulmain from Pegu and Rangoon, and from the towns on the Tsit-toung. Spanned at Weng-ba-daw by a wooden bridge.

Weng-ba-daw. — Village in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated at the mouth of the Weng-ba-daw creek, and on the left bank of the Tsit-toung river. Chief halting-place for boats passing up the Tsit-toung. Pop. above 1000. Seat of a large trade in grain.

Weng-pyaing.—Revenue circle in the District of the Salwín Hill Tracts, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877-78), 3659; land revenue, £197, and capitation tax, £173.

Weng-tsien.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; now includes Mú-rit-gyí. Consists of a flat, alluvial plain in the south-west; hilly towards the north and east. Pop. (1877-78), 2151; land revenue, £765, and capitation tax, £210.

Western Gháts.—Mountain range in Madras.—*See* GHATS.

Western Jumna.—Canal in the Punjab.—*See* JUMNA.

Western Málwá Agency.—Group of Native States in Central India.—*See* MALWA.

Wohora.—One of the petty States in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 2 square miles. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £500; and tribute is paid of £85 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Wontimetta.—Town in Cuddapah District, Madras.—*See* VONTIMITTA.

Wulúr.—Lake in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab; the largest sheet of water in the valley, formed by an expansion of the river Jhelum (Jhílam). The centre lies in lat. 34° 20′ N., and long. 74° 37′ E. Length from east to west, 21 miles; breadth from north to south, 9 miles. Celebrated for its picturesque beauty. Contains a small island, with extensive ruins of an ancient Buddhist temple. Subject to violent squalls.

Wulusna.—Petty State in Mahi Kántha, Bombay.—*See* WALASNA.

Wún.—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of Berar, lying between 19° 46′ and 20° 42′ N. lat., and between 77° 26′ and 79° 10′ E. long. Bounded on the north and west by Amráotí and

Básim Districts; on the south by the Nizám's Dominions; and on the east by Wardhá and Chánda Districts of the Central Provinces. Population in 1867, 323,689; area, 3907 square miles. The administrative headquarters are at the town of WUN.

Physical Aspects.—The greater part of Wún District consists of a wild and hilly country, formed by offshoots from the Ajanta chain, which runs from west to east across the south of Berar. Two ranges may be distinguished in this District. The first crosses the boundary near Nairat, runs easterly for 57 miles to Baundarpur, and then turning to the south, terminates in an elevation of 944 feet. On one of its numerous spurs the civil station is situated, 1583 feet above sea level. The second range enters Wún at its western extremity, near Mangrol, splitting into two ridges, of which one runs north-east for 35 miles towards Dabri, attaining a height of 1585 feet; while the other takes a south-easterly direction, and after rising near Warrandali to 1921 feet above sea level, the highest point in the District, dwindles away till it ceases near Warúr, after a total length of 66 miles. The principal rivers, the Wardhá and the Paingangá, bound the District on the east and south, uniting at its south-east corner, near the village of Jágod. Along the bank of the Wardhá lies a stretch of open and highly cultivated country, which contrasts with the broken wilderness to the south and west. The Paingangá carries off nearly all the drainage of the District. Its chief affluents are the Aran, Wághári, and Kúni. The hill ranges are formed of trap; and trappean rocks cover the whole area of the District, with an underlying series of beds of shale or slate, limestone, and sandstone.

At Wanjra, 5 miles north of Wún town, a small hill is composed of pinkish limestone in thin beds. West of Wún, the limestone continues, varying in colour from buff to dark grey, and contains chert, passing into jasper, in tolerably regular layers. The same general characters continue farther to the southward; and fine sections of these rocks may be seen in the bed of the Paingangá. Coal has been found in seams of considerable thickness throughout a wide area in the valley of the Wardhá; and excellent iron-ore abounds in the south of the District. Near Wún town there is a fine silicious sand, besides good clays and ochres, and soapstone of the best quality. In the open country along the Wardhá river, the soil consists of the heavy black loam known as *regar*. Among the valleys between the hills, fertile strips of land occur; but the hills themselves are bare, or clothed only with dwarf teak or small jungle. The heights near Wún, however, produce a large growth of bamboos, and elsewhere small bamboos are found in the ravines. But nature has not been bountiful to this region. On all sides the horizon is bounded by long sweeping hill ridges, enclosing undulating valleys; and though here

and there patches of cultivation peep out, the shapeless flat-topped hills, with their blackish barren rock and their scanty and stunted trees, render the general aspect of the country gloomy and desolate. Tigers and leopards abound in the District, especially about the Wághári river, where the pools formed in the rocky bed attract them during the hot weather. These animals prove most destructive to human life; during the three years ending 1870, a single leopard killed no fewer than 63 persons. Bison have been shot in the east of the District; and *sámbhar* and *chitál* deer are found in the hills and ravines. Bears are numerous, and will frequently attack cutters of wood and herders of cattle; and *nílgái* and wild hogs cause great ravages among the crops. Antelopes are rarely seen, except in the valley of the Wardhá. Hyænas, wolves, jackals, porcupines, and foxes abound; and small game is plentiful all over the District.

History.—Wún District has never formed the seat of an independent power. In early times, it appears to have been subject either to the ancient Hindu Rájás of Warangal, or to the semi-independent princes who ruled at Ellichpur. At the end of the 13th century, the Muhammadans invaded the Deccan; and Wún, with the rest of Berar, came under the sway of the Báhmani kings. Under this fierce but vigorous line Wún appears to have prospered, in spite of the frequent forays of the wild tribes across the Wardhá. Towards the close of the 15th century, the Imád Sháhí princes took advantage of the collapse of the Báhmani dynasty to assert the freedom of Berar, and for ninety years maintained a precarious independence at Ellichpur. Their tottering power was assailed by constant war; and during this time the Gond chiefs of Chánda gathered strength, and succeeded in annexing the open tracts along the Wardhá. The rest of Wún District was commanded by the rival princes into whose hands the stronghold of Máhur successively fell.

By the beginning of the 17th century, the country had been included in the Mughal Empire. The long and wasting wars carried on by Aurangzeb gave rise to fiscal exactions, from which the whole of Berar suffered; and the reverses of the Emperor afforded to Bakht Buland of Deogarh an opportunity, which he did not fail to seize, of ravaging the rich lowlands on both sides of the Wardhá. Towards the end of the century, the Marhattás swarmed into Berar; and in 1724, the decisive battle was fought which gave to the Nizám the sovereignty over the country. But though the authority of this potentate was always admitted, all real power speedily came into the hands of the Bhonslá family. Wún District was the scene of the early rivalry between Raghují Bhonslá, the founder of the Nágpur line, and his kinsman Kánojí. It was at Bhám, on the top of a small plateau over looking the Aran river, that Raghují had a divine intimation of

the bright future that lay before him; and it was from Bhám that, by a secret and solitary flight to Deogarh, he escaped assassination at the hands of Kánojí and his son Ráyaljí. The ruins of large stone buildings spread over a wide area, shaded by clumps of trees still fresh and beautiful, recall the numerous army that in those troubled times followed Raghují's standard. But the palaces are now deserted or tenanted only by bears and tigers. The contest with Kánojí ended in 1734, when Raghují captured his rival at Mandár, a small village to the south of Wún town. Eleven years later, Raghují, then firmly seated in Nágpur, wrested Wún *parganá* from Chánda, to which power it had fallen during the confusion of recent years, and afterwards annexed Chánda itself. The struggles in which the Nágpur Rájá, the Nizám, and the Peshwá were involved during the rest of the 18th century did not directly affect Wún District; but on the 2nd April 1818, the Peshwá, when retreating towards Chánda to effect a junction with Apá Sáhib, was hemmed in near the confluence of the Paingangá and the Wardhá, and signally defeated by the British forces under Colonel Scott and Colonel Adams. During all these disorders, the fertile lowlands along the Wardhá suffered severely from the depredations of the wild Bhíls and of the Pindárís. In 1848, Wún was disturbed by a man from Nágpur, who claimed to be Apá Sáhib, the former Rájá of Nágpur. The pretender succeeded in taking the field with about 4000 men; but was at length defeated and captured by Brigadier Hampton in June 1849. In 1853, Berar, including Wún District, was assigned by the Nizám to the British Government. The District was undisturbed during the Mutiny of 1857.

Population.—The Census of 1867 returned the population of Wún at 323,689 persons, on an area of 3957, or according to the most recent and accurate survey, 3907 square miles. The average density of population throughout the District was 86·6 persons to the square mile; but the rich lowlands along the river Wardhá support a more dense population, while the hilly region is in some parts totally uninhabited. Thus the Talegáon *parganá* maintains 196 persons per square mile; while the Wái *parganá* has only 24. Ethnically divided, the Hindus predominate as 21·9 to 1. Among them, Bráhmans numbered 7377; the mass of the Hindu population consisted of Kunbis, 123,546; Báris and Mális, 23,587; Dhers, Koláms, etc., 71,462. Besides the above-named, the Banjáras numbered 36,948. The Muhammadans were returned at 20,810; while the hill tribes consisted chiefly of 37,348 Gonds. The Hindu peasantry constitute a quiet, home-loving people, uncouth in their manners, but fairly industrious. Little beauty or elegance shows itself among their women, who lead a laborious life both in the house and in the field. In Wún District, the Banjáras form two distinct tribes, the

Chárans and the Mathúras, while the mendicants are called Dhúris. These last practise circumcision. Among the Banjáras, the men differ but little in their costume from the people of the District; but the women distinguish themselves by their ivory ornaments, and by the beautiful embroidery worked with their own needles on their skirts and bodices. For the most part, the Banjáras are hardy. Their bearing is frank and independent; but when intoxicated, they become lawless, and frequently commit violent crimes. Though conforming to the religious observances of the Hindus, they do not permit their daughters to marry before puberty. When ripe for wedlock, the young girl is not allowed to sleep on a bed, and for a month after marriage, the bride appears veiled before the rest of the community. In civil matters, the Banjáras adjudicate their disputes among themselves in preference to resorting to courts of law. The Gonds in Wún District are distinguished into tribes, which are again divided into *gotras*, each member of which bears the same name. They have also a religious classification, according to the number of gods they worship. The primitive method of winning a wife by capture still survives in a modified form in the custom of exogamy, which prevails also among the Hindu population, but is practised in the most marked form by the Gonds. Not only may no Gond man marry a Gond woman belonging to the same *gotra*, or sept; but even if the lovers are of different *gotras*, marriage between them is unlawful if they worship the same number of gods. The language spoken in the District is Marathí; but in the south, the soft and musical Telugu prevails. The hill tribes retain their own dialects.

Division into Town and Country.—The population of Wún District is principally rural. In 1867, the strictly agricultural population amounted to 83,143; the non-agricultural to 66,393. Thus the former exceeded the latter by 21·1 per cent. The District contains no town of importance. WUN, the headquarters, is a pretty little town, which in 1867 contained 876 houses. Kalam and Bhám were once places of some importance; but Bhám is now deserted and Kalam decayed. The place next in size to Wún is Dárwa; and the petty trading towns of Digras, Ner, Kotah, and Babulgáon may be mentioned. The District contains no municipality.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3907 square miles, only 519,554 acres are cultivated, while of the portion lying waste, 1,915,156 acres are returned as cultivable; 1572 acres, chiefly of rice land and ground devoted to garden produce, are irrigated. The husbandman follows a primitive system of rotation of crops, and employs manure, though to no great extent, as most of the dung is required for fuel. *Joár* is the grain most cultivated, and in the year 1869-70 occupied 155,888 acres. Rice was grown on 3762, linseed on 15,333, and wheat on 21,369

acres; while 124,543 acres were devoted to cotton. The District yields the usual forest produce, such as gum, lac, *mahuá* berries, the dye called *behera*, the *bel* fruit, useful for its astringent properties, and honey of a very fine description. The favourite dye called *al* is planted, and not found in a wild state; *san* or hemp is also largely sown, and finds a ready sale among the Banjáras. The District contains no good breed of horses. Cattle are both bred and imported. The larger variety are well suited for the plough, while the smaller breed resemble the trotting bullocks of Wardhá District in the Central Provinces. Of 66,578 male agriculturists, 26,325 are returned as registered occupiers. The prevailing system of tenure is the *ráyatwárí;* and since the assignment to the British Government, the right of occupancy has been respected, while cultivation has been encouraged by the offer of waste land on advantageous terms. Exceptional tenures are those of *jágírdárs*, to whom former Governments have granted villages rent-free, either for maintenance or as endowments of temples; and the *pálampat* tenure, under which the holder and the Government share the revenue of villages so held in fixed proportions. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land are returned as follows:—Land suited for *joár*, 1s. 7d. to 1s. 2d.; for oil-seeds, 1s. 7d. to 1s.; for wheat, 1s. 7d. to 2s. 6d.; for cotton, 1s. 7d. to 2s. 2d. The highest rates are given for land adapted to the growth of tobacco, sugar-cane, or opium, which in the more favourable places rents at 12s. or 13s. an acre. The ordinary prices of produce per cwt. in 1869-70 were returned as follows:—*Joár*, 4s. 3d.; linseed, 5s. 8d.; wheat, 10s. 11d.; cotton, cleaned, £4; sugar, £2, 12s. 6d.; tobacco, £2, 3s. 4d. A skilled labourer received on an average 2s. per diem; an unskilled labourer, 6d.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District is chiefly carried on by means of markets and fairs, the articles dealt in consisting of coarse cloth (dyed and undyed), grain, salt, bangles, spices. The largest market is that held every week at Kotah. Bábulgáon at its weekly market, and a few other places, do a large traffic in horned cattle; and during the fair at Wún, which takes place yearly about March, a considerable trade is transacted in carts, bullocks, and hardware. The principal exports consist of cotton, grain, *ghí*, and the like. The cotton grown to the east of Yewatmál finds its way to Hinganghát in the Central Provinces; while that to the westward is purchased either at Digras or at Kárinja, by agents from Bombay. Grain of every description is exported both to the east of the Wardhá, and south of the Paingangá as far as Haidarábád. The Banjáras carry salt to the Central Provinces, and bring back rice from Dhánda in Ráipur District. The other imports are spices, *gúr*, cloth, salt, hardware, etc., from the Bombay and Nágpur markets. The rural

manufactures consist of coarse cloth, coarse blankets, gunny, and sacking. At Mangrúl, glass bangles are made in a very ingenious manner, and Wún town contains some good stonemasons and carpenters; but few skilled artisans, however, can be found in the District.

Whether the coal and iron ores, in which Wún is rich, will hereafter transform the industry of the people, is a question for the future. Since 1870, shafts have been sunk at different spots; and direct evidence of the occurrence of coal has been obtained throughout 13 miles of country from Wún to Pápur, and for 10 miles from Júnára to Chicholi, opposite Nokora. The carbonaceous character of the coal raised at Písgáon seems to prove its fitness for iron-smelting; but the pit was abandoned in August 1875, and at present the only coal-pits open in the Wardhá field are those at Warorá in Chánda District, Central Provinces. The want of means of communication is much felt in Wún District, and during the rains cart traffic is entirely suspended. The only roads are a metalled but unbridged line to Talegáon; a road to the railway station of Chándúr, a distance of 32 miles; and an easterly line of 14 miles to Kalam. The passes over the ranges which traverse the District have, however, for the most part been sufficiently cleared of stones to permit the passage of carts. During the rains, the Wardhá affords means of transit by water for a short distance.

Administration.—Wún District forms part of the territory assigned by the Nizám to the British Government, under the treaties of 1853 and 1860. The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs*. The police are attached to 11 stations and 14 outposts. Total number of police of all grades, 443, being 1 policeman to every 9·5 square miles and to every 775 inhabitants. In 1868 and 1869, the persons convicted of criminal offences amounted respectively to 821 and 1071. Education is in a backward state. Up to 1861, when education became a State concern, learning was despised, and the teacher contemptuously termed a cattle-grazer. The number of schools in Wún under the Educational Department is returned at 33, of which 3 are middle-class and 29 lower-class schools, while 1 is for girls.

Medical Aspects.—The year is divided into three seasons,—the hot, from the end of February to about the middle of June, when the rainy season sets in, and lasts till September. The cold weather occupies the intervening months till the ensuing February. Mean monthly temperature at the observatory at Yewatmál for the year 1868:—January, 65° F.; February, 70°; March, 76°; April, 86°; May, 90°; June, 88°; July, 85°; August, 81°; September, 85°; October, 81°; November, 78°; December, 73°. The annual rainfall averages about 38 inches. July and August are the most rainy months of the wet

season; and showers frequently occur in November, December, and April. The climate of the District is enervating and unhealthy, especially from September till the middle of November, when fever of a dangerous type is very prevalent. Rheumatic fever is common during the monsoon. Except in April and May, the night air is injurious, and almost deadly in the south of the District. Every second or third year cholera appears in an epidemic form, and nearly every year small-pox works great ravages, especially among children. The system of registration has not, however, been sufficiently perfected to show the death-rate in the District.

Wún.—Chief town of Wún District, Berar. Lat. 20° 3′ N., long. 79° E.; pop. (1876-77), 4233. The postal road from Haidarábád to Nágpur passes through the town, which has groves of tamarind and mango trees around it, and several tanks; it has also some fine temples. A fair is held here annually in the spring, at which an active trade in carts, bullocks, and hardware is carried on. The soil about the town is of very fine sand, which penetrates everywhere. Station-house, post office, and English vernacular school. At Mandár, a small village south of Wún, Raghují Bhonslá in 1734 captured his kinsman Kánojí, who had disregarded the orders of the Rájá of Sátára to return to his court.

Wunala. — Petty State in Jháláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. — *See* WANALA.

Wunnah.—Petty State in Káthiáwár, Bombay.—*See* WANNAH.

Wursora.—Petty State in Mahi Kántha, Bombay.—*See* WARSUORA.

Wusna.—One of the petty States in Mahi Kántha, Bombay. The amount of land under cultivation was estimated in 1875 at 10,735 *bighás*. The chief is named Thakúr Sinh Takht, a Ráhtor Rájput. Pop. (1875) returned at 4450; revenue, £701. Tribute is paid of £310 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Wye.—Town in Sátára District, Bombay.—*See* WAI.

Wynád.—Hill Division in Malabar District, Madras.—*See* WAINAD.

Y

Yádikí.—Town in Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 15° 3′ 10″ N., long. 77° 54′ 50″ E.; pop. (1871), 7196, inhabiting 1354 houses. A very irregularly built town, with some curious old temples.

Yagachi (or *Badari*, the Kánarese and Sanskrit names respectively for the Zizyphus jujuba).—River in Mysore, tributary to the Hemávati; rises in the Bábá Budán Mountains in Kádúr District, and flows with a southerly course into Hassan District, where it passes the town of Belúr, and joins the Hemávati, itself a tributary of the Káveri (Cauvery), near the village of Gorúr. In Kádúr the river is crossed

by 16 small anicuts or dams, irrigating 1941 acres, with a revenue of £2259. In Hassan there are 5 dams, from which are drawn channels with an aggregate length of 26 miles; the measured discharge of each varies from 13 to 31 cubic feet per second; the area irrigated is 673 acres, and the revenue, £405.

Yalamalai (*Elumalai*).—Town in Madura District, Madras. Pop. (1871), 5806, inhabiting 990 houses. Lat. 10° 16′ 0″ N., long. 77° 16′ 30″ E.

Yamkanmardi.—Municipal town in Belgaum District, Bombay; situated 21 miles north of Belgaum town, in lat. 16° 8′ N., and long. 74° 32′ E. Pop. (1872), 5296; municipal revenue, £83. Post office.

Yanáon (*Yánám*).—French settlement, surrounded by British territory of the Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 44′ 10″ N., long. 82° 15′ 5″ E.; area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1877-78, 5 square miles; population, according to the same authority, 5460. The *Annuaire des Etablissements Français dans l'Inde* (1878), published at the Government Press in Pondicherri, gives the area as 1429 hectares, and the population as 4971. Yanáon was founded shortly before 1750, in which year it was seized by order of Nasir Jang, the Nizám. Its fortunes followed the vicissitudes of French history in Southern India. The little station of Yanáon, only about 2½ square miles in extent, together with a patch of land at Masulipatam, are the only traces left in this part of the peninsula of all that Bussy and Dupleix won. These, with the other French possessions in India, were secured by the treaty of 1814-15. The following description of Yanáon is taken from Morris' *Account of the Godavery District* (1878):—

'The factory of Yanáon is built at the point where the Koringa river issues from the Godávari, and is bounded by these rivers on the east and south. The territory extends along the banks of both rivers for two leagues and a half, and its breadth varies from 390 metres to 3 kilometres. The soil is very fertile. . . .

'The Chief, who is appointed by the President of the Republic, governs under the control of the Governor-General of the French possessions in India. He presides over the council instituted for the discussion of the budget. He has under his orders a priest, a head of police and other administrative affairs, a collector of taxes, who also acts as treasurer and receiver of unclaimed property, a medical man, and a registrar. The Chief fills the functions of president of the criminal court, of commerce, and of the magistracy and police. There is also a European civilian in charge of the registration of births, deaths, and marriages. The area of the territory is about 1429 hectares. The population is estimated at 5460, divided as follows:—Yanáon proper, 4221; Kanakalapetta, 441; Nettakúru,

133; Kursammapetta, 527; Adavipálem, 138. Yanáon contains 29 terraced houses, 108 tiled houses, 90 thatched houses, and some hundreds of huts. In November 1839, a terrible hurricane, accompanied by an inundation of the sea, laid the town waste, and destroyed all the official records. There are 3 schools in Yanáon—a girls' school, superintended by four nuns of Saint Joseph of Lyons, paid by the State; a school for high-caste girls, under the same superintendence; and a free school for boys for instruction in Telugu and French. The police consists of a Commissioner, a *kotwál*, a head peon, and 18 constables. There is a jail and a dispensary. The latter is supplied every six months from Pondicherri. It is under the care of the medical officer, and supplies the wants of the people of the town and neighbourhood. The medicines are given gratis to all who may require them. The average number of criminal cases a year is 16, and of civil trials, 60. The revenue for the last nine years has averaged £4550. The principal item is the import duty, which amounts to about £1750 a year.'

Yandabu (*Yendaboo*).—Town in Independent Burma; situated on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) river. Lat. 21° 38′ N., long. 95° 4′ E., about 40 miles west of Mandalay. Yandabu is of historical importance, as the place where the Treaty of Peace which concluded the first Burmese war was signed on the 26th February 1826. By this treaty the Burmese King ceded to the British the conquered Province of Tenasserim, and also renounced all claims upon Assam and the adjoining States of Cáchár, Jáintia, and Manipur. Assam passed under British rule as the result of the war; Cáchár was acquired by lapse in 1830, on the death of the Rájá without heirs; the Jáintia territories were annexed in 1835, and the Rájá deposed for complicity in the human sacrifice of British subjects. Manipur State still retains its independence.

Yandún.—Township, British Burma.

Yan-dún (*Yan-doon*).—Town in Thún-khwa District, British Burma. —*See* GNYOUNG-DUN.

Yáwal.—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay; situated 12 miles west of Sanda, in lat. 21° 10′ 45″ N., and long. 75° 45′ E. Pop. (1872), 8886. Yáwal formerly belonged to Sindhia, who gave it in grant to the Nimbalkar, one of his officers, about the year 1788. By an agreement in 1821 with the son of the grantee, the British Government obtained possession of the town. In 1837, Yáwal was restored to Sindhia, and was retaken by the British Government in 1843. The Nimbalkars provided the town, when it was in their possession, with a fort, which is still in good repair. Yáwal was once famous for its manufacture of coarse native paper, and for its indigo. Paper is still manufactured here, though to a small extent; and there are remains of indigo

vats in the neighbourhood of the town. Salt pans can also be seen about 3 miles outside Yáwal. Sub-judge's court and post office.

Ye.—Tract of country, British Burma.

Yedatúr.—*Táluk* in the north of Mysore District, Mysore State. Area, 168 square miles, of which 78 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 65,523, of whom 62,836 were Hindus, 2317 Muhammadans, 269 Jains, and 101 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £8922, or 3s. 8d. per cultivated acre. Rice-growing tract, watered by channels drawn from the Káveri (Cauvery). Areca-nut of a fine quality is also produced.

Yedatúr (literally, '*left bend in the river*').—Municipal village in Mysore District, Mysore; situated in lat. 12° 28′ 20″ N., and long. 75° 25′ 20″ E., on the right bank of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, 24 miles north-west of Mysore city. Pop. (1871), 1949, of whom 1593 were Hindus, 344 Muhammadans, 1 Jain, and 11 Christians; municipal revenue (1874-75), £33; rate of taxation, 4d. per head. Weekly fair held on Fridays. Here is a conspicuous temple of Arkeswara, endowed by the late Mahárájá, with bathing *gháts* leading down to the river, and an *agrahára* around.

Yedehalli.—Village in Kádúr District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 14° 39′ 50″ N., and long. 75° 57′ 20″ E., 30 miles north-west of Chikmagalúr. Pop. (1871), 1518. Headquarters of the Lakvalli *táluk*. In the 16th century, the fort was held by the Tarikere chiefs, from whom it passed into the hands of the *pálegár* of Ikkeri. It is now the residence of several wealthy merchants, being an entrepôt of through traffic between the east and west of the country.

Yedenálknád.—*Táluk* or Subdivision in the territory of Coorg. Area, 313 square miles; number of villages, 52; number of houses, 4156; pop. (1871), 31,104, of whom only 5177 are native Coorgs. The administrative headquarters are at VIRA-RAJENDRA-PET. Yedenálknád occupies the south centre of Coorg, running across the territory from east to west. It is covered with lofty mountains and dense forests. The products are rice, cardamoms, sandal-wood, teak, and coffee.

Yediyúr.—Village in Túmkúr District, Mysore State. Lat. 12° 59′ N., long. 76° 55′ E.; pop. (1871), 507. A religious festival, held in the month of Chaitra and lasting for five days, on the occasion of the Siddhesvarana *játra*, is annually attended by 10,000 people.

Yelagiri.—Hill tract in Salem District, Madras, lying between 12° 31′ 20″ and 12° 37′ 49″ N. lat., and between 78° 39′ 20″ and 78° 45′ 30″ E. long.; average height above sea level, 3500 feet; highest point, 4437 feet. There are 7 *malaiyáli* villages, with a population (1871) of 1204, cultivating wheat and millet. But little timber is now left on the slopes. Fever is not so prevalent here as on the other hills of Salem.

Yelahanka.—Municipal village in Bangalore District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 13° 6′ 10″ N., and long. 77° 38′ E., 10 miles north of Bangalore city. Pop. (1871), 2521. Historically interesting as the first possession of Jáya Gauda, the progenitor of the Kempe Gauda line of chiefs, who founded Bangalore, and subsequently became identified with the annals of Magadi and Savandrug. A car festival, held for ten days in honour of Venugopala in the month of Chaitra, is annually attended by 2000 persons. Until 1871, headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name, now incorporated with Bangalore *táluk*.

Yelandúr.—*Táluk* in the south-east of Mysore District, Mysore State, forming the *jágír* granted to the Díwán Púrnaiya by the British in 1807, and now held by his great-grandson. Area, 73½ square miles; pop. (1871), 27,459, of whom 26,770 were Hindus, 686 Muhammadans, 2 Jains, and 1 Christian. Said to have been selected by Púrnaiya on account of its unfailing supply of water; and because, while not far from the capital, it was out of the way of officials and travellers. On the east, it is bordered by the Biligiri-rangan Hills. The rest is watered by the Honnu-hole or Suvarnati river, crossed by an anicut or dam at Ganganúr, from which 6 channels are drawn off, feeding 17 large and 11 small tanks. About one-half of the cultivated land is occupied by 'wet' crops, of which two are in some places raised in the year. Much sugar-cane and mulberry are grown, but the cultivation of the latter plant has greatly decreased in recent years owing to disease among the silk-worms.

Yelandúr.—Town in Mysore District, Mysore; situated in lat. 12° 4′ N., and long. 77° 5′ E., on the Honnu-hole river. Headquarters of the *jágír* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 3130. The seat of a wealthy principality in the time of the Vijayanagar sovereigns. A temple of Gauresvára has an inscription dated 1568. Yelandúr is now a thriving place, and contains a handsomely built house of the *jágírdár*.

Yellamala (*Yerramala*, 'Red Hills').—Range of mountains in Karnúl and Cuddapah Districts, Madras, lying between 14° 31′ and 14° 57′ 40″ N. lat., and between 78° 10′ and 78° 32′ 30″ E. long. The range runs north-west across the Jammalamadugu *táluk* in Cuddapah, and thence north through Karnúl nearly to the Domal valley; its length is from 60 to 70 miles; greatest width, about 20 miles; average height, 1600 feet above sea level. The following account of the hills is given in Mr. Gribble's *Cuddapah District Manual*:—'Near Proddatúr, a line of hills commences, and runs parallel to the hills which form the Pulivendla boundary. The boundary hills are the Yerramalas, and the parallel line of hills just mentioned are also included under the same name, although separated from them by a broad valley. This latter line of hills has no distinctive name of its own; and I propose to call them the Gandikota Hills, from the hill fort

which commands the narrow pass through which the Pennar (Ponniyar) finds passage, and which forms the most distinctive feature of this portion of the range. These hills are not lofty, but are in some parts covered with thick jungle. They are inhabited by Cheuchwars or Korachuvandlu. Where the hills are more thickly wooded and are thrown together in wild confused masses, the scenery is grand; especially so at that portion of the Yerramala Hills where the Pennar rushes through a narrow gorge and emerges at the old fort of Gandikota.' The Madras Railway crosses this range.—*See* also GANDIKOT.

Yellápur.—Chief town of the Yellápur Subdivision of North Kánara District, Bombay. Lat. 14° 58′ N., long. 74° 45′ E.; pop. (1872), 1531. Yellápur is a municipal town, with an income of £43. Dispensary and post office.

Yelusavirá. — *Táluk* or Subdivision in the territory of Coorg. Area, 115 square miles; number of villages, 160; number of houses, 3373; pop. (1871), 18,829, of whom only 20 are native Coorgs. Yelusavirá occupies the extreme north-east corner of Coorg, and in population and products resembles the adjoining State of Mysore, from which it was conquered by Rájá Dodda Virappa at the end of the 17th century. The minor fiscal divisions are called *hóblis*, as in Mysore, and not *náds*, as in the rest of Coorg. The inhabitants live in villages, and not scattered through the country in separate homesteads.

Yemmiganúr (*Emmiganúr*).—Town in Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 15° 46′ N., long. 77° 31′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 7349, inhabiting 1309 houses. The town is well built and clean, and is the station of a sub-magistrate; it was once noted for its weaving.

Yenúr.—Town in South Kánara District, Madras. Lat. 13° 1′ 30″ N., long. 75° 11′ 5″ E.; pop. (1871), 442, inhabiting 88 houses. An old Jain town, containing a large monolithic statue, 38 feet high, of the same kind as the Jain statues at Srávana Belgola (in Mysore) and Kárkala (in South Kánara).

Yeola.—Chief town of the Yeola Subdivision of Násik District, Bombay; situated in lat. 20° 4′ 10″ N., and long. 74° 30′ 30″ E., 44 miles east of Násik town, 13 miles south of Manwár station (161 miles from Bombay) on the north-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, and nearly 12 miles from the frontier, on its south-east, of the Nizám's Dominions. A municipal town, with a population (1872) of 17,461 persons, and a municipal revenue of £900. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary. Yeola owes its importance to its flourishing trade in the silk and cotton goods woven here, and also to its gold-twist manufacture. Large quantities of raw silk enter the town yearly, and £450 worth of gold and silver are calculated to be worked up every month. The hands employed on these manufactures number about 3500. The exports in 1875 were valued at £150,000. At the

time of its foundation, Yeola was under the Emperor of Delhi; subsequently it passed into the hands of the Rájás of Sátára, and then into those of the Peshwás. Mádhu Ráo Peshwá finally gave it with numerous other villages in grant to Vithal, the ancestor of the present chief of Vinchur. He still enjoys the revenue derived from the lands attached to the town of Yeola, but has no authority within the town. Yeola is surrounded by a dilapidated mud wall.

Yerkád (*Erkád*, *Yercaud*).—Hill town in Salem District, Madras. Lat. 11° 51′ 38″ N., long. 78° 13′ 5″ E. The principal and oldest station in the Shevaroy Hills, 4828 feet above sea level, and the headquarters of the sub-magistrate and other civil officers. Pop. (1871), 2867. There are about 60 or 70 European and Eurasian residents, but in the hot weather this number is greatly increased by visitors from Madras and Salem. There are good hotels, 2 churches, a dispensary, and other conveniences for visitors. The European houses are surrounded by flourishing coffee-gardens. The distance from Salem is 14 miles, and from Shevaroy Hills railway station, 12 miles. This railway station is 3 miles from the foot of the hills. The climate is mild and pleasant, the temperature averaging about 14° F. less than on the plains. At a certain time of the year, fever of a mild type prevails. The scenery about Yerkád, and the views of the plains and the neighbouring ranges, are of great variety and beauty.

Yerramala.—Range of mountains in Karnúl and Cuddapah Districts, Madras.—*See* YELLAMALA.

Yoma or Roma Hills.—Two ranges of mountains in Burma. The first and most important, known as the Arakan Yomas, is a prolongation from the great congeries of mountains of South-eastern Assam. Starting from the BLUE MOUNTAIN, in lat. 22° 37′ N., and long. 93° 10′ E., this range runs southwards for a distance of over 700 miles, dividing Arakan from Independent Burma in the north, and from the British Province of Pegu in the south. The chain, though of considerable height in the north (Blue Mountain, 7100 feet), gradually diminishes in altitude and breadth, till it sinks into the sea at Cape Negrais, the last bluff being crowned by the Hmaw-dan pagoda. Several passes cross the range, the chief being the An or Aeng Pass into the Irawadi valley. The Pegu Yoma range separates the valleys of the Tsit-toung (Sittoung) and Salwín. It starts from Tek-me-then in Independent Burma, and stretches southwards to near the head of the Irawadi delta, where it branches out into several low terminal hills, the extremity of one being crowned by the holy building of Buddhism, the famous Shwe-Dagon pagoda.

Yusafzái.—*Tahsíl* of Pesháwar District, Punjab; comprising a low land, backed up by mountains, lying to the north of the Kábul river. Consists of a fine alluvial deposit, covered in large part with luxuriant

verdure. Mounds lie scattered over the whole tract, evidently the sites of ancient villages, still abounding in fragments of pottery and bricks. Yusafzái Afgháns form the mass of the population, and give their name to the *tahsíl*. The administrative headquarters are at Hoti Mardan. Area, 872 square miles; pop. (1868), 152,392 persons; number of villages, 192; persons per square mile, 174.

Z

Za-dí.—Revenue circle in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 2239; gross revenue, £232.

Za-dí-byeng.—Revenue circle in Sandoway District, Arakan, British Burma. Area, 9 square miles. Chief product, rice. Pop. (1877), 2375; gross revenue, £369.

Zaffarwál. — North-eastern *tahsíl* of Síalkot (Sealkote) District, Punjab; consisting for the most part of a fertile submontane belt, watered by percolation from the hill streams. A dry and treeless ridge, however, occupies one portion of the *tahsíl*. Area, 307 square miles; pop. (1868), 180,225 persons; number of villages, 278.

Zaffarwál.—Municipal town in Síalkot District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; situated in lat. 32° 22′ N., and long. 74° 54′ E., on the east bank of the river Degh, 27 miles south-east of Síalkot town, on the road to the foot of the hills below Dalhousie. Pop. (1868), 5641, consisting of 2689 Hindus, 2189 Muhammadans, 35 Síkhs, 37 Christians, and 691 'others.' Founded, according to tradition, by one Jafar Khán, a Bajwa Ját, to whom it owes its name, about four centuries ago. Narrow and tortuous streets, paved with brick. Meagre trade in local produce. Temple, rest-house for travellers, *tahsíl*, *thána*, dispensary, post office. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £238, or 11⅝d. per head of population (4975) within municipal limits.

Záidpur.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; situated in lat. 26° 49′ 45″ N., long. 81° 22′ 20″ E. Founded about 400 years ago by Sayyad Zaid. Large manufacture of country cloth. Pop. (1869), 10,680, namely, 6375 Musalmáns and 4305 Hindus.

Zaing-ga-naing.—Revenue circle in the Pegu township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Rice is grown in the neighbourhood of the villages, and along the banks of the Pegu river; elsewhere the country is hilly and covered with forests of bamboo, *pyeng-ma*, *pyeng-gado*, etc. Tigers, deer, hog, and occasionally wild elephants, are met with. Pop. (1877), 8903; gross revenue, £3537.

Za-lwon.—Township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Divided into two very unequal portions by the river Irawadi. Headquarters at Za-lwon town.

Za-lwon. — Revenue circle in the township of the same name, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Consists of a large plain, entirely under rice. Pop. (1878), 4790; gross revenue, £738.

Za-lwon.—Town in the above township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 17° 27′ N., and long. 95° 37′ 55″ E., on the right bank of the Irawadi. Contains the usual civil buildings. The river is rapidly encroaching on the town, and in 1879 the *bázár* was pulled down in order to save the materials. Close to the town is a sacred image that was carried off by the British during or after the second Burmese war, but was subsequently returned. Pop. (1879), 4637.

Za-lwon.—Revenue circle in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 40 square miles; pop. (1877-78), 1345; gross revenue, £315.

Zamaniah.—Southern *tahsíl* of Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; comprising the whole portion of the District lying south of the Ganges, and consisting of a lowland strip along the river bank, with an alluvial upland behind. Area, 369 square miles, of which 298 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 202,405; land revenue, £23,902; total Government revenue, £26,360; rental paid by cultivators, £51,104.

Zamaniah.—Town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; lies in lat. 25° 22′ 25″ N., and long. 83° 34′ 35″ E., in the portion of the District south of the Ganges. Station on the East Indian Railway, and telegraph office.

Za-mie.—River in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Rises in the main range of the Yomas, near the Pass of the Three Pagodas, in lat. 15° 18′ N., and long. 98° 25′ 29″ E., and flows for about 80 miles in a general north-north-west direction, till it joins the Wengraw. The united stream, under the name of the ATTARAN, falls into the Salwín at Maulmain.

Zamkha.—Petty State in Rewa Kántha, Bombay.—*See* ZUMKHA.

Za-tha-byeng.—Revenue circle in the Gyaing Than-lweng township of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1878), 3042; gross revenue, £434.

Za-tha-byeng. — Village in the above revenue circle, and headquarters of the Gyaing Than-lweng township. Contains a court-house and police station. Pop. (1878), 2160.

Za-yat-hla.—Revenue circle in the Pan-ta-naw township of Thún-khwa District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Consists of a large plain, covered for the most part with tree and grass jungle. Pop. (1877), 6384; land revenue, £226, and capitation tax, £662.

Ze-ma-thway.—Revenue circle in the Tha-htún township of Amherst

District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877-78), 2806; land revenue, £400.

Ze-ya-wa-dí. — Township in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 22,835; gross revenue, £4061.

Ze-ya-wa-dí.—Revenue circle in the above township, Toung-ngú District, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 9071; gross revenue, £1463.

Zhe-pa-thway.—Revenue circle in the An-gyí township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1878), 4448; gross revenue, £2711.

Zí-beng-hla.—Revenue circle in the Poung-day township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 3686; land revenue, £247, and capitation tax, £351.

Zírá.—*Tahsíl* of Firozpur District, Punjab; consisting throughout of a dreary flat, undiversified by hill or valley. Area, 494 square miles; pop. (1868), 139,693; number of villages, 385; persons per square mile, 283.

Zírá.—Town in Firozpur District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Lat. 30° 58′ N., long. 75° 2′ 25″ E.; pop. (1868), 3010. Small but well-built town. Little trade. *Tahsíl*, Government distillery, police station. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £110, or 7⅝d. per head of population (3471) within municipal limits.

Zí-ya.—Revenue circle in the Mro-houng township of Akyab District. Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877-78), 1986; gross revenue, £649.

Zumkhá.—One of the petty States in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, ¾ square mile. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £120; and tribute is paid of £5 to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief is named Baria Bichar Sinh.

Zút-thút.—Revenue circle in the Tsit-toung Subdivision of Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 110 square miles; pop. (1877-78), 4573; land revenue, £1188, and capitation tax, £408.

INDEX.

NOTE.

Subjects of general importance, such as 'Administration,' 'Agriculture,' 'Commerce,' 'Manufactures,' 'Rice,' etc., are treated of under each of the 240 *Districts of India. It would unduly swell this Index to cite under such headings all the* 240 *separate notices which the Imperial Gazetteer thus contains. Only the more important, therefore, are cited in the Index, and the reader is referred for the remainder to the proper section in each Provincial and District article.*

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